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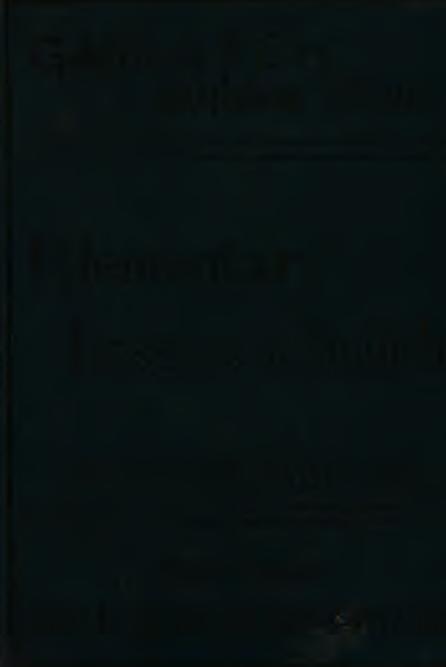
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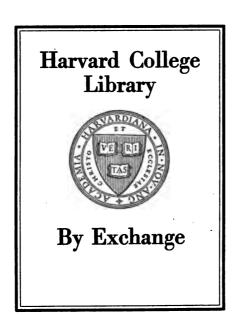
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ELEMENTARY

LESSONS IN ENGLISH

FOR

HOME AND SCHOOL USE.

PART FIRST.

HOW TO SPEAK AND WRITE CORRECTLY.

Teacher's Edition

PREPARED BY

MRS. N. L. KNOX.

BOSTON:
GINN AND HEATH.
1882.

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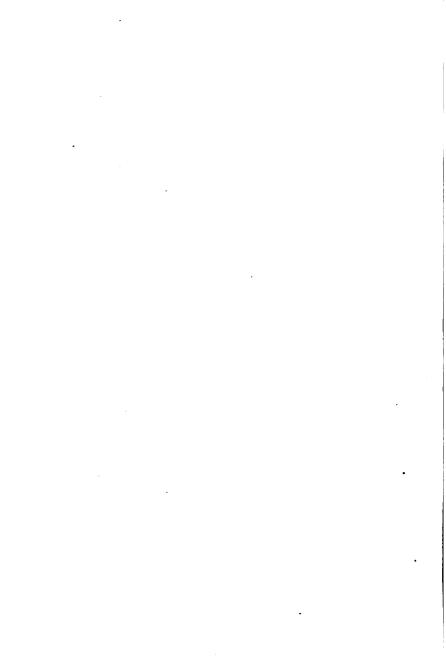
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THE TEACHER'S GUIDE.

EDUCATION AND INSTRUCTION DEFINED.

1. A CHILD is sent to school to acquire power and to acquire knowledge.

To educate is to develop power. To instruct is to impart knowledge.

2. We get the full force of the word educate by tracing it, not to e-duco, to draw out or off, but to the verb educare, which "differs from its primitive educere in this respect, that, while the latter signifies to draw forth by a single act, educare, as a sort of frequentative verb, signifies to draw forth frequently, repeatedly, persistently, and therefore strongly and permanently; and, in a secondary sense, to draw forth faculties, to strengthen and to train them."

The Latin verb *instruere*, from which we derive our *instruct*, means "to place materials together, not at random, but for a definite purpose,—to lay them one upon another in an orderly manner, as parts of a preconceived whole." The mere aggregation in the mind of a pupil of a mass of disconnected ideas, is no more *instruction* than heaping bricks and stones together is building a house.

Instruction is the deliberate, orderly arrangement of knowledge in the mind of a learner: first, the elements which lie at the beginning, which make the foundation; then, in their order, the succeeding portions of the superstructure, each fitted to its place, each sustaining its proper relation to what rests under it or is founded upon it, until the whole stands in clear outline, a substantial and complete structure,—a thorough and systematic knowledge of one subject.

3. As an educator, the teacher's function is to develop, expand, strengthen, and discipline the powers of the child. As an instructor, he must know all about the material in which he works, the subject or branch of a subject which he proposes to teach, must choose his tools—apparatus, illustrations, and methods—wisely, and handle them deftly, and must understand the foundation upon which he builds,—in short, must be a skilled workman. But skill implies a knowledge of principles, thoughtful study, patient experiment, and persevering practice; and the skill to teach wisely and well demands thoughtful study, a correct knowledge, however acquired, of the principles underlying the arts of education and instruction, patient experiment, and persevering practice.

THE PRINCIPLES OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

No art becomes respectable until its principles are acknowledged; until they are methodized and housed in a system the art is a vagrant.—BOUCICAULT.

4. The child must do in order to know. He learns to speak by speaking; to write, by practice in writing. No power can be cultivated but by the exercise of that power. There is no way to make sight, hearing, and touch quick, delicate, and accurate but by the daily, well-guarded, and wisely-directed use of the eye, the ear, and the hand.

The senses which minister to the bodily wants (as taste, smell, and feeling) are sufficiently exercised by the physical needs and indulgences. Sight, hearing, and touch—the senses which serve the intellect—are entrusted to the education of the school, of circumstance, and of vocation; hence.

I. Train the eye to see; train the ear to hear; train the hand to do; train the lips to speak.

Let the child observe and handle the objects of his study, because he thus learns more quickly and thoroughly; because this is the only way to form habits of observation or to increase the power and trustworthiness of the senses; and because, in every employment in life, the accurate eye, the quick ear, and the skilful hand, favor success and advancement.

5. In the order of nature the child first perceives, then remembers; he imagines before he is capable of abstract reasoning; last, he generalizes. The teacher who, in educating a child, recognizes this order of the development and growth of its mental powers, has all the momentum of nature on his side; hence,

II. Cultivate the powers of the mind in the order in which Nature exercises them: viz., 1. Perception; 2. Memory; 3. Imagination; 4. Reason; 5. Generalization.

To cultivate the powers of the mind is to cause them to grow,—to stimulate and direct their growth. The powers of the mind demand, in order to grow, proper exercise, change of exercise, and rest. Like the powers of the body, they may be dwarfed by inactivity or neglect, and are impaired by overwork.

- 6. Perception. Perception is that power of the mind which acquires knowledge through the senses. It is the first mental power employed by the child, the busy scout that brings in from all directions a complete and varied supply of knowledge. In the plan of Nature the child is always a discoverer. It is a violation of her plan to force him to take knowledge at second hand and from a book, when the sources of knowledge are about him, when curiosity is keenly alive and Perception on the alert. He must learn of colors by seeing colors, not by hearing about them; he must become able to distinguish sounds by hearing sounds, not by reading about them. Since Perception acts through the senses, it may be educated by exercises and lessons, properly given, which appeal to the eye, - as lessons on Color, Form, Local Geography, Animals, and Plants; to the eye and hand, - as lessons in Drawing, Writing, and Number (when objectively taught); to the ear, the eye, and the voice, -as lessons in Reading, Sound, and Music; to the ear, the voice, the eye, and the hand, as lessons in Language. When the pupil no longer acquires knowledge by observation and experiment, he should be required to refer the statements of the text-book to nature, to verify or to disprove them, and thus strengthen and keep alive his habit of observation.
- 7. Memory.—Memory is the power which retains and recalls what the mind acquires. Use strengthens the memory; inactivity dwarfs it; over-exercise impairs it. To know thoroughly is the sure way to remember. "The Art of Memory is the art of paying attention."

Everything which is perceived at all makes an impres-

sion upon the mind. If it be clearly perceived, the impression is distinct. The simplest act of Memory is to recognize that impression when it is repeated. The readiness with which a thing is recognized is in due proportion to the clearness with which it was perceived, and the interest which it awakened. A higher act of memory is, to retain an impression with such power that it may be recalled when that which produced it is no longer present.

To promote the retentiveness of the memory: -

- 1. Create an interest in what is to be learned. 2. See that the impression of it is clear, accurate, and complete.
- 3. Prolong the impression, to make it deep and lasting.
- 4. Repeat the impression until it is familiar.

To promote the power to recall readily and distinctly: —

- 1. Concentrate the attention upon what is newly learned.
- 2. Associate the new knowledge with something interesting or previously known. 3. When one of the two things thus associated is referred to, call up the other.
- 8. Imagination.—As Perception is the mind's discoverer, and Memory the treasurer of the mind, so Imagination is the mind's artist,—the picture-loving and picture-making power of the mind. As a more vivid memory, the imagination reproduces with life-like distinctness images which have once existed in the mind.* In its creative function it translates words into images, and sentences into pictures, thus redeeming from drudgery the study of Geography, of History, and of Reading. It is the creative imagination which, under the teacher's guidance, tells the

See Exercises for Training the Memory and Imagination, Appendix to Teacher's Edition, page 284.

story that forms a basis for the Language lesson or Composition exercise. What mental power supplies to the class in Inventive Drawing their original designs? As an educator, the teacher must discriminate between the creative imagination and the inventive power.

An inventor works in constant recognition of natural laws and obstacles. To be perfectly trained the inventive power must be exercised under specified limitations. To call into use the creative imagination, it is sufficient to say, "Make a picture," — and leave the child to choose the number and kind of lines which he will employ. To train the inventive power, his freedom must be restricted. The number and kind of lines must be limited; thus "Make a picture in which you use just four straight lines, four curved lines, and four acute angles."

The Imagination, perhaps more than any other power, needs wise guidance and restraint, and the conscientious selection of the materials upon which it is nourished, to keep out the grotesque and evil, to introduce the refined and the pure.

9. Reason.—Reason is that power of the mind which compares, understands, infers, judges. "Why" is the teacher's passport to its presence.

A child learns by observation (perception) that a cat has padded feet, and long, sharp, curved claws usually drawn back between the toes; that the cat catches mice; that the mice are timid and fleet; and that the cat creeps stealthily to the hole, crouches, springs upon the mouse, holds it firmly, and feeds upon it. When he infers that the feet are padded because the cat must walk noiselessly,

that the claws are drawn back between the toes because if they were like a dog's they would make a noise when she walks, and would become dull; that they are sharp because she must press them into the flesh, and that they are long and curved because she must take a firm hold of her struggling prey, he reasons.

A decisive victory will have been gained for exact knowledge, and for a philosophical training of the mental powers, when, even in simple things, pupils are required to give the fact first and the inference afterward, - to say, for example, "This word is a name, therefore it is a noun; this word modifies the application of a noun, therefore it is an adjective"; rather than, "It's a noun because it's a name," etc. A pupil cannot tell why cough is spelled c-o-u-g-h; but there is a reason why a word is a verb or an adverb, why a city is a commercial or a manufacturing city, why we multiply 3 by 12 to reduce 3 feet to inches, and the clear-headed, conscientious teacher will not tire of exacting the reason, or, to save time and prevent interruption, will have it understood that the reason is to be stated first, and the inference afterward; thus, "New York is situated on a fine harbor. It is connected by water or rail with all parts of the country. It is a large commercial city." "There are 12 inches in one foot. In three feet there are 3 times 12, or 36 inches."

When a process of reasoning is embodied in a formula which the pupil has committed to memory, he does not necessarily reason when he answers "Why" with the formula. Not to be deluded by this semblance of reasoning, the teacher must frequently ask the pupil to illustrate or explain what he means.

Pupils learn to reason by reasoning, and any lesson which permits the insertion of a "why" furnishes an opportunity to cultivate Reason.

10. Generalization. — Generalization is the power of the mind which forms a group or class from a number of like individuals; which, out of a great many special laws covering special cases, makes one law to cover all the cases. The power of Generalization does not unfold itself with much force in youth; but, in certain directions, the child generalizes early. After studying one by one individual animals, he compares their structure, their habits, and the adaptation of their structure to their habits, and groups them into families or classes; as the Flesh-eaters.

Or, after deducing the rule for adding er and est to words ending in silent e, and the rule for adding ing to such words, and the rule for adding able or ible to such words, he makes the general rule for dropping the final e before a suffix beginning with a vowel. The child can acquire the power to make broad generalizations only by being allowed to generalize as far as his observation and maturity will permit. It is the teacher's office to inquire "Of how many of these have you found this true?" not to tell the pupil, "That is true of all these." The teacher may aid him to collect his individual instances, and may lead his mind to the point of generalization, but should not generalize for him.

11. Because the child's mind grows only by exercise, and because the method of observation and experiment is his only method of learning anything so as to really know it,—

III. Do not tell a child what you can guide him to discover for himself.

It is what the child does for himself, not what is done for him, that really educates him. The teacher may furnish occasions for thought, and arouse curiosity, and stimulate interest, and put the class in the way of reaching the knowledge to be acquired; but each child must think for himself, in his own way, and grasp the knowledge through his own personal experience. "Telling, cramming, needless explanations, and rote learning enfeeble the powers of a child, stifle his enthusiasm, and prevent him from learning how to learn."

12. Many things, as words, dates, symbols, and conventional or arbitrary forms and usages, need to be taught outright as matters of mere memory. Do not hesitate to tell a child at once what cannot be discovered by observation or experiment; as the name of a thing, a symbol to be used, a date, or a form employed by common consent, but,—

IV. Develop ideas before giving terms. Cultivate Language.

Words, without ideas, do not constitute knowledge. A word is merely the symbol of an idea, and of no value unless we know what it signifies. The knowledge lesson should be in advance of the word lesson. The primary attention should be on the idea, and the new word or phrase should be taught incidentally—as a secondary matter. But it should be taught thoroughly and accurately, and the pupil should be required to use it—otherwise it is no part of his vocabulary. When the child

encounters a word before the idea which it expresses has been presented to his mind there is no choice but to go from the word to the idea, to illustrate its meaning, and to require the child, in proof of his understanding of it, to use the word as a part of his own vocabulary.

- 13. "Language is that faculty of the mind by whose activity ideas and thoughts are associated with their established signs." To cultivate Language:—
- 1. Call attention to a new thing, and, when the new idea is grasped, give the right word to express it.
- 2. Introduce an object which will interest the class, and let them talk about it freely. If an error of speech be noted, commend the child as far as possible, and call upon him or some one else to "tell the same thing in another way"—or "in a better way." No rule need be given. The child should learn good English, as he learned bad, by imitation.

Later the class may "talk with their pencils" about the object, and read what they have said.

- 3. Give the children opportunities to describe things or places which they have seen, to relate stories, and to repeat items of intelligence in their own words.
- 4. Encourage each pupil to use, to express his own ideas, the new words learned from books or from the conversation of others.
- 5. Aid him to suggest, or to learn, more than one way of expressing the same idea.
- 6. Impress upon the child that "I know but I can't tell" doesn't know well enough. By adroit questioning, or, with older pupils, by the topical form of recitation,

require the class to express in clear and accurate language the substance of every lesson learned.

7. Occasionally, call upon the class to pronounce, spell, write, and use correctly a few words in common use which they are prepared to understand.

THE PRINCIPLES OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

- 14. What is taught should have two values: 1. Value as discipline; 2. Value as knowledge. The plan of teaching it should be adapted: 1. To the nature, capabilities, and condition of the child; 2. To the nature of what is to be learned. Since the mind acquires the elements of knowledge through the senses, by means of perception and not by abstract reasoning,—
- I. Proceed from the known to the unknown; from the concrete to the abstract; from the simple to the more difficult; from the particular to the general.

The best starting-point for the study of any subject is the simplest fact of that subject which comes under the daily observation of the pupil. The weather of to-day, last week, last month, three months ago, will make a basis for, and create an interest in, the climate of the locality, of the zone, of other zones. The study of the flowers in the garden, and in the woods around his home, is a more solid and interesting introduction to Botany than the dull and well-nigh impossible task of committing to memory a page of definitions. The child who with delight arranges his groups of objects, and makes an addition table of his own, has the fittest-preparation to enjoy, learn, and remember

the abstract table of the book. He who can make a list of words which are the names of things has a nucleus about which to collect the names of qualities, of actions, of feelings, of ideas, preparatory to defining the term Noun. short, during the perceptive stage, when reason and the power of abstraction are immature, the best occupation for the child is handling objects, observing phenomena, and tracing the operations of special laws: and the proper introduction to the formal study of any subject is the real knowledge thus acquired. Tabular views, abstract statements, and all general rules and definitions, should be postponed until the pupil has sufficient knowledge to frame them for himself. He may not be expected to use a general term intelligently, that is comprehensively, until he has examined the various particulars included under it.

- 15. In examining an object, as a flower or tree, it is first viewed as a whole, then analyzed into its parts. In studying a subject or branch of learning, a thorough knowledge of the whole subject is built up, little by little, from a knowledge of its various parts. The teacher must know well the subject or branch of a subject which he proposes to teach, must make a careful analysis of it, must understand the relation of its parts to each other and to the whole subject, and must choose a wise order and method of presentation. A confused plan of teaching can only result in confusion of ideas: hence the teacher should,—
- II. (a) Reduce a subject to its elements;
 - (b) Begin at the beginning of the subject;
 - (c) Present but one difficulty at a time;

- (d) Introduce every point in the order of its logical sequence or dependence;
- (e) When two points depend equally upon a preceding, are independent of each other, and are both essential to the proper understanding of the succeeding point, take the simpler before the more difficult;
- (f) Proceed to no new difficulty until the one in hand is fully mastered; Be thorough.

Obedience to a principle so useful and rational is hindered by the illogical arrangement of matter in ordinary text-books. The child is asked at the outset, "What is Arithmetic?" or "What is Grammar?" He might well reply, "I don't know. I can tell better after I have studied it awhile." Teachers have not yet learned that they have a right to assign Lesson XIX. first—if it should come first. The best time to teach a thing is when the child needs to know it. However difficult it may be in itself, it will seem simple enough when taught between that upon which it depends and that which it underlies.

To illustrate the principle by an application so palpable that the chief of blunderers could not ignore it, let it be supposed necessary to teach what an adverb is. The adverb presupposes a verb, the verb a predicate, the predicate a subject, the subject and predicate a sentence, the sentence a thought to be expressed. Yet more, "An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb." Place must be made for the adjective. The adjective must be considered as a modifier of the noun. The noun may be taught in connection with the subject of the sentence. And so, beginning with a thought

which he expresses, the pupil may be led to master, one by one, in the order of their logical dependence, the sentence, subject, predicate, noun, verb, adjective — or noun, adjective, verb. Both the verb and the adjective must be understood before the adverb can be properly defined. Neither the adjective nor the verb is dependent upon the other. Both are dependent upon the preceding terms. The teacher may choose which shall be first presented.

16. To determine in advance the path to be followed by the student, one must be master of the subject taught. To guide him along that path, to secure thoroughness of knowledge, to promote mental activity and development, to excite interest and stimulate investigation, to direct effort in the right channel, one must be master of the arts of the teacher.

THE ART OF QUESTIONING.

Questioning is an art, and facility in this art, as in all others, comes only after painstaking practice. — GLADMAN.

To rightly value the art of questioning, the teacher need only consider the different purposes which questioning serves in different lessons and at different periods in the same lesson.

17. In an oral lesson the teacher wishes, —

1. To discover at the outset how much knowledge the children already possess in reference to what he proposes to teach: (a) That he may avoid wasting time in the attempt to teach what they already know; (b) That he may use the knowledge already acquired as the basis for the new lesson.

By a brief series of animated and searching questions he is able to fix the limit between the known and the unknown, and to put the class in condition to receive and master the knowledge he has in store for them.

- 2. To develop the points of the new lesson in the order of their logical dependence, to lead the children to work with him enthusiastically and promptly, and to stimulate every child in the class to grasp the new lesson firmly. This may be called *educational questioning*, and is the most difficult work of the oral teacher.
- 3. At the close of the lesson to recapitulate, to give sufficient variety of drill to insure thoroughness, and to lead the class to sum up and put in form to be retained the points brought out in the lesson.

To distribute the questions properly, to elicit in the desired order the answers sought, to pause long enough for a thoughtful answer, and yet not too long when the class is very nearly wearied, to hold the attention when the matter is no longer new, and to relieve the attention before the interest is exhausted, demands thoughtful study and persevering practice.

4. When a sufficient time has elapsed, to test the pupil's understanding and memory of what has been taught, as well as his ability to apply the rule, principle, or information acquired.

The teacher is no longer a co-worker, who is leading the children step by step to surmount a new difficulty, but a task-master, who is to judge of his own success and thoroughness in giving the lesson by their readiness in reproducing or applying it.

- 18. In testing pupils upon a lesson assigned from a book, the teacher wishes,—
 - 1. To review the class upon the salient points of some lesson previously learned: (a) In order to use such points as a foundation for, or to promote a clearer understanding of, the new lesson; (b) In

order to establish the association between the known and the unknown — or but newly learned.*

- 2. To test their preparation of the required task.
- 3. To develop any new ideas which grow out of the subject, or a new application of the ideas acquired.
- 4. To lead the class to sum up in a concise form what they have learned from the lesson.
- 5. To awaken an interest in, and to prepare the way for, the next lesson. Questions may be asked and left unanswered to arouse an interest in the new lesson, to promote independent thinking, and to lead the class to bring in some facts or illustrations not found in the book.

THE LAWS OF QUESTIONING.

19. 1. Questions should be clear, concise, definite, and adapted to the capacity of the pupil. They should be in simple, pure, straightforward English, of few words, and should at once direct the attention of the learner to the special point concerning which he is to speak. Indefinite or general questions and directions, as, "What have you learned about Denver?" "Tell me about the cube," may be permitted in reviews or topical recitations, where the pupil is expected to say all that he can on a given subject. But, in development lessons, it saves time and prevents the introduction of much irrelevant matter to hold the class to definite answers by definite questions; as, "How many corners has the cube?" "Of what is it made?" or, "In what State is Denver?" "In what part of the State is it?" "What city is the capital of Colorado?" etc.

Nothing can be more irrational than the custom of introducing the lesson of to-day by a review of yesterday's lesson—simply because it is yesterday's. If that lesson has not been thoroughly lessoned, the review of that, and kindred lessons, should constitute the worughly lessy. But a new lesson should be based upon a review of whatever will reader the more intelligible and useful.

- 2. A question that is heard but not understood should not be repeated in the same language. It should be simplified. The question should be stated to the entire class, and the name of the pupil who is to answer it should not be spoken until all have had an opportunity to prepare an answer.
- 3. Questions should be in the language of the teacher, not in the language of the book. If the questions of the book are asked and the answers of the book are accepted, the pupil may easily substitute memory for understanding in the preparation and rehearsal of his lesson.
- 4. As a series, questions should be logical: they should omit nothing, they should develop every point in its proper place, they should constantly lead toward the ultimate fact to be brought out in the lesson. Each question of a perfect series is based upon the preceding answer. Unfavorable answers must be turned to good account. The pupil should not be reproved for giving an answer which is justified by the question asked.
- 5. Questions should not allow a choice of answers. Instead of "Is it red or green": "ask, "What color is it?"
- 6. Questions should not suggest the answer by contrast; as, "How many of you think that the humming-bird is a very, very large bird?" The answer should not be indicated by inflection, emphasis, tone of voice, expression of face, motion of lips, or in any other way.
- 7. As a rule, questions should not be such as are sufficiently answered by "Yes" or "No." Mere assent or dissent does not require much intellectual effort, and saying "Yes" or "No" is inadequate as a means of cultivating language. Putting an old question in a new form

leads the child to look at an old truth from a new standpoint, and to feel a new interest in it. This favors thoroughness and breadth of knowledge. The teacher should avoid stereotyped forms of questioning.

- 8. A question should not introduce ideas which have been carelessly omitted, or anticipate ideas which have not yet been taught. Questions which tell too much, which assume too much, or which admit of guessing at the answer, are weak educational instruments.
- 9. The question should not generalize for the class; as, "What have you learned of all these?" before "Of how many of these is that true?"
- 10. A question should be interrogative in its form; as, "What kind of a tree is this?" instead of "This is what kind of a tree?" Elliptical questions are useful with very young children, whose embarrassment or meager vocabulary may demand such indulgence, but they should be abandoned as soon as the pupils are able to answer in sentences.

As the chief value of educational questioning is to stimulate mental activity, and to give the pupil a habit of thinking and investigating for himself, each question should require a distinct intellectual effort, and each answer should be the thoughtful result of the pupil's own work

20. Skill in receiving and in disposing of answers is an important part of good class-questioning.

If there be no answer, the teacher is usually to blame. He has miscalculated the power of the class.

If the answer be a random guess, or wilfully wrong, the teacher is certainly to blame. The discipline of the class is bad.

If the answer be partly right and partly wrong, the teacher should

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unravel the difficulty by asking questions which will simplify the matter, and then return to the original question, and obtain the correct answer.

Always give a pupil credit for any element of correctness which his answer may contain. If possible, lead him to see wherein it is incorrect, and why that is wrong.

Do not resort to ridicule to show that an answer is absurd. A child will not try to answer if he feels that he may be laughed at for his pains. Simultaneous answering is useful to encourage the weak and timid, to arouse flagging attention, or to save time in recapitulation and drill; but individual recitation is the safeguard of thoroughness.

ORAL LESSONS IN LANGUAGE.

Can we too often say to the teachers of youth that all hearing and reading does not half so much strengthen and delight the mind as writing and speaking? — JEAN PAUL RICHTER.

21. It is the first day of school. Vital questions are to be settled. The teacher, brought face to face with five, fifteen, twenty-five, fifty children, just freed from the nursery and kindergarten, or collected from the street, has peculiar responsibilities. Tact, cheerfulness, animation, a genuine interest in children, and that quick intelligence which knows well when to see, and when not to see, what is going on, will be worth more to-day than profound scholarship. To get acquainted is the first thing in order. The ready means to acquaintance is conversation. The best stimulus to conversation is a subject of interest about which one has something to say.

For a Conversational Lesson for the First Day of School:

- 1. Provide an object which will not fail to excite the interest of the class; as a bird, a large toy, or a bright picture illustrating a nursery rhyme. Conceal the object until time for the lesson.
 - 2. Without any formality whatever, speak two or three words of

cordial welcome. Then, to arouse curiosity and lead the class to forget themselves and the strangeness of their surroundings, ask, What do you think I have to show you to-day?

- 3. After a moment's pause, or a few words to stimulate their interest, present the object. Place it where all in the class can see it. Ask, Who knows what it is? "Yes." "All tell me what it is." (The timid who would not answer alone may answer with the rest.)
- 4. Let the children say what they will about it. To get them to talk is the purpose of the lesson. If there be any hesitation, call attention to something else about the object which will interest them. Let a child who is too shy to talk take the object, or point out the parts which the others are talking about.
- 5. Do not weary the class. Put the object away before their interest flags.

Cautions. 1. Avoid asking questions which they cannot readily answer.

- 2. If a shrinking child attempts to say something, do not seem to observe him closely. If necessary, help him to finish what he tried to say. Add something interesting to it.
- 3. Avoid asking a child to do anything which he cannot or will not do. For to-day, issue no commands.
- 4. If there be but few children in the class, allow them to collect around you and examine the object. If the class be large, stand near them, or move from place to place in their midst.
- 5. Do not criticize errors of speech. At most, only restate pleasantly, in a better form, what the child attempted to say, as: *Child*. "It aint got no ears." *Teacher*. "No; it hasn't any ears."

For Language Lessons for the First Year in School, the objects with which children are already partially familiar furnish abundant material. A few conversational lessons, similar to that outlined above, to enable the teacher to study the children while the children learn how to go to school, may be followed by familiar talks about the objects in the school-room. As the chief use of these early lessons is to get the children to express what they know, the objects chosen should be such as they have seen elsewhere; as the table, the chair, the door, the windows, or the clock, rather than the blackboard, the crayons, or the desks. To name the object, to speak the name plainly, to tell where they have seen something like it before, to tell what it is for, to tell the color of it, and anything else they can about it, may be quite enough for one lesson. In general, without limiting freedom of expression, it is better to have a plan for the lesson: as,—

- 1. The name of the object. Drill on the pronunciation of the name.
- 2. How many have seen any other or others like this. Where? A question which will elicit in answer the name (if not too difficult) of more than one.
- 3. What people have them for, or do with them, or of what use they are.
- 4. Color; very large or small; like or unlike others which they have seen; why others did not look like this.
- 5. Questions which elicit in answer the words of the lesson upon which they need to be drilled.
- 6. A simple home-task to cultivate perception and comparison; as, if the lesson has been about a chair, to look at the chair in which baby is rocked to sleep, or the chair in which the little brother or sister sits at table, and tell about it to-morrow.
- Cautions. 1. Avoid objects whose names the children could not articulate.
 - 2. Avoid teaching or using many new words.
 - 3. Use very simple and pure English. If a child errs

in speech, either restate his fact without remark, or say, "Yes, that is true." I would say, "...," putting it in better form. Or, agree with him as to the fact, and ask him or another to "tell it in a different way," or "in a better way." Let the child who made the error repeat what he said in the better form. Cordially approve the new statement. Not merely to see that a thing is done, but to see that it is done in the best way, is the indispensable office of the teacher. The child is not to be interrupted or contradicted. Without any spirit of censure, with tact, politeness, and gentleness, he is simply to be shown the right way.

- 4. The lessons should be brief. Twenty minutes would be too long, even for a class of forty children.
- 5. Choose unlike objects for consecutive lessons. Vary the plan pursued.
- 22. Two or three talks about objects with which the children are comparatively familiar may be followed by a few picture lessons on domestic animals, or two or three lessons in distinguishing sounds, recognizing colors, and testing weights. The following scheme of lessons will be suggestive to the teacher, and may be modified in any way which will adapt it to the needs of individual classes, provided it be remembered always that,—

To educate the senses and cultivate perception is as great a service as to train the lips to speak. That —

To help the child acquire ideas is more valuable than to teach him to use words. That—

Pictures appeal to but one sense, and cultivate imagination rather than perception, give erroneous ideas of relative size, and give no ideas of sound, weight, and other sensible qualities; and that picture lessons must therefore alternate constantly with lessons on Sound, Color, Size, Weight, Form, Drawing, Minerals, Plants, and manufactured objects.

To keep in view that, in all these things the child is a discoverer; that the eye, the ear, the hand, and the tongue are to be impartially trained, it would be better not to think or to speak of these early lessons as Language Lessons, but as exercises in

Getting Acquainted with Things.

Color. Make a collection of bright-colored crewels, knots of silk, samples of ribbon, straws, bits of tissue-paper, beads, feathers, and whatever will add interest, or variety of application, to the lessons. During the first year, teach the children to recognize and name the prominent colors; as,—

red,	yellow,	blue,	
green,	violet,	orange,	
brown,	white,	black.	

- Plan. 1. Place the materials of various colors before the class. Select two objects, as two blocks, straws, or feathers, which differ in color, but are alike in every other respect. Have the two objects named.
- 2. Hold up one of them, and ask who will come to the table and find one *just like* it. Another. In each case have the class agree that they are alike.
- 3. When all have been found, still ask them to find another. If they say there are no others, select one which differs in color only, and ask why that would not do. What color are these?
- 4. Who can find anything else on the table that is red? Repeat this until all the things that are red have been found. In each case have the child show the object to the class, and tell what he has found, and what color it is; as, "I have found a red bead," "This feather is red."
- 5. Find something elsewhere in the room that is red; or, Bring something to school to-morrow that is red.

- Cautions. 1. When the objects are not in use, it is better to keep them out of sight. Novelty furnishes half the interest of the lesson.
- 2. Each color should be represented in different materials, and in various tints and shades.
- 3. If the children say "light blue," "dark green," etc., accept and use the terms; but do not attempt to teach them to distinguish or name the different tints, hues, and shades.
- 4. Take care to place together the colors which harmonize; as red with green; yellow with violet; and blue with orange.
- 5. Test every child in the class to discover if any be color-blind.

When one color has been learned, make on the black-board a small square or other design in crayon of that color, and let it remain. After red, teach the class to recognize green. Review red and green together, and add the design in green crayon. Place elsewhere on the board the design in orange and blue, and in yellow and violet, when those colors have been learned.

After several colors have been taught, call upon the children to name a flower, a fruit, a bird, or other absent object, and tell what color it is. To be sure that all in the class are thinking of the same color, have the child who names the object point out something in the room that is of that color. If only a part of the object be of that color, as the breast or neck of the bird, or the center of the flower, have the child state which part is of the color chosen. If the thing named varies in color—as,

roses red, white, yellow—lead the class to state that. When the children differ about the color of any object, let them look at it before the next lesson, and report what color it is. The colors in a bouquet, in a picture, in the plumage of a duck or peacock, in the rainbow, or in the landscape seen from the school-room window, may be used as a lesson in review. The name of each color written over the color-square on the blackboard will be learned by the word-metbod before the close of the year.

- Size. By the comparison of sticks, strings, lines, strips of paper, pieces of tape, and various other objects, lead the children to pronounce and use correctly:
 - 1. Long and short,
 - 2. Long and longer,
 - 3. Long, longer, and longest,
 - 4. Short and shorter.
 - 5. Short, shorter, and shortest.
 - **Plan.** 1. To develop the new idea and teach the word, present two objects, as two strings, which differ in length and are alike in every other particular. Have the class say what you have; how many you put on the table; which string you put down, and how they can tell which it was when the two are together.
 - 2. Apply the new word, or words, to lines on the blackboard and to the objects in the school-room.
 - 3. Have them name things seen out of school that are short; long. Name two that are long, and tell which is the longer, etc.
- Cautions. 1. Teach the children to measure, and not to guess, to find out which is longer or shorter.
- 2. Present new objects, and vary the tests given and the applications required, in order to promote interest and to secure variety in the language used.

Take a few lessons on some other subject; as, Weight, or Sound. Then review the above, and teach:—

- 6. Broad and narrow,
- 7. Broad and broader,
- 8. Broad, broader, and broadest.

Caution. If a child use a correct word, as wide, accept it, and commend him. Ask who knows another word that means the same, and accept, or teach broad.

- 9. Two words to describe the same thing; as, "a long, narrow brook," "a long, broad street," "a short, narrow lane," "a broad, short aisle."
 - 10. Thick and thin.
 - 11. Thick, thicker, and thickest,
 - 12. Thin, thinner, and thinnest.
- 13. Two words to describe the same thing; as, "a short, thick pencil," "a long, thin board," "a broad, thin ribbon."

Caution. Aid the children to express themselves in full statements; as, The stove-pipe is long. A piece of thin paper was wrapped around it. I have the thickest coat.

Note. — If there be time, the teacher may add lessons on things that are large, small, deep, high, tall, low. Shallow, slender, and words as difficult as these should be deferred till much later.

Weight. Furnish, in addition to the objects which the class see and handle, a few packages which look alike, but differ in weight. Develop the correct ideas, and teach the pronunciation and use of —

- 1. Light and heavy,
- 2. Heavy, heavier, and heaviest,

- 3. Light, lighter, and lightest,
- 4. Large (in size) and light (in weight),
- 5. Small (in size) and heavy (in weight).
- **Plan.** 1. Have the objects distinctly named; as, cork, iron, a sponge, a book, a feather, some packages (bundles, or parcels). Let the children talk freely about them, tell the use of cork, iron, or sponge; where the feather grew, and what color it is, etc.
- 2. Have a pupil stand with arms outstretched at the sides. Place a light object on the tips of the fingers of one hand, and a very heavy object on the other. Lead the class to state that the stone made the arm drop, and the sponge did not. Repeat with various objects and several children.
 - 3. Obtain or teach light and heavy.
- 4. Ask the class to find things in the room that are light; that are heavy.
- 5. Apply to the paper parcels, and lead them to state what we must do to find out if anything be light or heavy.
- 6. In review, have the pupils apply two or more terms to the objects found; as, The poker is short, thick, heavy; the long, light pointer, etc.

Place. By proper questioning and by a suitable arrangement of objects, lead the class to pronounce and use correctly the ordinary prepositions; as,—

The box is on the table.
The pencils are in the box.
A stool is under the table.
The stove is by the window.
Mary is near the fire.
The bell is between the box and the book.
They knocked at the door.
We rode down the hill.
We walked up the hill.
They ran from the dog.

Caution. 1. Do not allow the use of "frum" for from; "iv" for of; "eowt" or "deown" for out or down.

Form. During the latter half of the year the class may be taught objectively a few words which express form; as,—

1. All that we can see or touch of the ball (the box, the block, etc.) is its surface.

Plan. 1. Have the objects named.

- 2. Hold up a ball, and ask what it is. How do you know?
- 3. Take the ball and show me all of it that you can see. Touch all of the ball that you can see.
 - 4. Repeat with various objects and several children.
- 5. Who knows what to call all that we can see or touch of the ball? Children, or teacher, give term surface.
- 6. Drill on the pronunciation of the word. Application: as, Take something from your desk and show me its surface. Show me all of the surface. What is the surface of the box? What (of this block, &c.) am I touching? What (of the bell, &c.) do you see?
- 2. The ball (egg, apple, etc.) has a curved surface.

Plan. Push a ball, and then a box. Lead the class to say that the ball rolled; that it rolled on its surface; that the egg (apple, etc.) rolls on its surface; that the box, book, etc., will not roll. Teach "curved surface," and apply to objects in and out of school, or which may be brought to school; as a lemon, marbles, a grape, an orange, etc.

3. The box (block, book, etc.) has a plane surface.

Plan. Review curved surface. Teach plane surface by a similar plan.

- 4. This is a face. These are faces.
- 5. A face on which the block will roll is a curved face. A face on which the box will stand is a plane face.
 - Plan. 1. Hasty review of surface, curved surface, and plane surface, with application to the objects to be used in the lesson.

- 2. Call attention to something shaped like a hemisphere (or cylinder). Show all the surface. Show that it will both roll and stand.
- 3. Have a child put his hand over the part of the surface on which it will stand; touch every bit of that part; say that he is touching a part of the surface; that the box will stand on this part of the surface. Repeat with other objects and different pupils.
- 4. Find a part of the surface on which this will roll; show all of that part; tell what you are touching. Repeat with objects which have plane surfaces.
- 5. Teach face and faces. Apply to many objects. Lead the children to use the terms curved and plane; to tell what a curved face is; what a plane face is; and that a face is a part of the surface.
 - 6. Review with varied application.
- 6. This is an edge. These are edges.
- 7. This is a straight edge. This is a curved edge.
- **Plan.** 1. Take a block or box. Call attention to an edge. Who can take another block and find something on it like this? Apply to the desks, table, &c.
 - 2. Who knows what this is? Drill on ě and edge.
- 3. Find another. Another. What shall we call all of these? Drill on *ědges*. Find three edges that are alike.
- 4. By moving the fingers toward each other on two adjoining faces till they meet on an edge, lead the children to state, "Where two plane faces meet is a straight edge." "The edge between a plane face and a curved face is a curved edge."
- 5. Application. Find a face and tell us about it. Say something about this edge. What is a plane face? On what kind of a face will the box roll? Show me all that you can see or touch of the orange. What is it? What kind of a surface has the orange? See if it will roll on its surface. Pick out a block that has one curved face, one plane face, and one curved edge. Take something from the table and tell us all you can about it.
 - 6. Bring something to school that has a plane surface.
- 8. A picture of a straight edge is a straight line. A picture of a curved edge is a curved line.

9. This straight line is vertical. This line is horizontal. This is an oblique line.

Note. —The review of the words taught should be by means of application to new objects. If the pupils were six when they entered school, they will be able to take in connection with the review.

- 10. This is a sphere. This is a (half-sphere) hemisphere.
- 11. This has two curved edges; it has two plane faces, and a curved face between them; it is a cylinder.
- 12. This has six plane faces just alike; it has eight corners; it has twelve straight edges; it is a cube.
- 13. This has one curved edge; it has one plane face; it has a curved face that ends in (tapers to) a point called the apex; this is a cone.

In application of the words which describe lines, the teacher may make a drawing on the blackboard, and have the class point to the various lines and tell what kind of a line each is. Or, the teacher may dictate: "Draw a vertical line. Draw a straight line. Draw a curved line. Draw a horizontal line. Draw a straight line that is neither vertical nor horizontal; what kind of a line is it?" Or, each child may be allowed to make a picture, using a limited number of lines, and describe his picture to the class.

Minerals. The list of words to be taught by these lessons must vary in various localities. In every school the children may be taught to distinguish and name,—

marble,	slate,	coal.
gold,	silver,	iron.
copper,	lead,	tin,
zinc,	pebbles,	sand,

and the minerals common in their own locality. They should be able not only to name, but to say something about each; as, The pebble is smooth and white. It is small, and has a curved surface. Iron is heavy. This piece of marble is cold and heavy. Gold is yellow, but the coal is black. That stone is large and rough. The sand sparkles. The tin is bright.

Sound. The lessons on sounds may be given in five or ten minutes, as a relief to any slate exercise, or attention to a book or chart. Of course, the eyes must be closed, or the face averted.

- Plan. 1. With all eyes closed, touch a bell and ask, What did I do? How do you know? With what did you hear? Show me your ears. How many ears have you? Touch one of them, and say ear. Drill. Touch both, and say ears. Drill.
- 2. "All look and listen." Touch two bells, or a glass and a piece of wood. "Close your eyes." Touch one only, and ask, "Which did I touch?" Have the class agree. "How could you tell?" Children. "By the sound." Apply to an empty glass, and a glass full of water, and to many various objects.
- 3. Touch an object gently, then sharply. Lead the class to say that it was the same thing, but one sound was loud and the other low, or soft, or faint.

Have the class name sounds they like, and sounds they do not like; imitate sounds; tell why people keep a canary bird in a cage instead of a goose or a peacock; recognize each other's voices and footsteps; and use words that tell sounds: as,—

The bell rings.
Boys whistle.
A bee buzzes.
Geese hiss.

Birds sing. Parrots talk. The cat mews. Horses neigh. Peacocks scream.

A robin chirps.

A rooster crows.

The dove coos.

The duck says, "Quack, quack."

The bob o link says, "Rob o link"

The bob-o-link says, "Bob-o-link."
We whisper, laugh, talk, sing, shout, whistle.

Animals. No attempt should be made to give these lessons the formality of scientific study. They are to be simply talks about familiar animals, to lead the children to observe closely, and to state what they know in good language. When it is necessary to use a picture, as for a lesson about the cow or horse, have the class see the animal out of school, and verify, or add to, the statements made. Whenever possible, have the living creature or a stuffed specimen before the class during the lesson. Any bird in a cage, or stuffed bird, a globe of gold-fish, or a specimen from the fish-market, will furnish the class with something to say. If a picture be used, choose one large enough for all in the class to see; and when the animal is named, have different children show on the wall about how high it is, or name some other animal about as large. Not all the points indicated in the general plan, given below, can be taken in one lesson. The character of the previous lessons must determine which may be omitted.

The names of parts common to all, as head, body, may be written upon the blackboard, and will soon be learned by the word-method.

General Plan. 1. Name of animal.

- 2. What it does.
- 3. Parts named and counted.
- 4. Description of parts.

- 5. Use of characteristic part; as, wings to the bird, fins to the fish, horns to the cow.
 - 6. Uses of the animal to us.
 - 7. Parts useful after death.
- 8. Names of parts as used after death; as, meat, hide or leather, mutton, pork.
 - 9. Treatment.
- 10. Name of young; as, calf, chicken, colt, lamb, kid, gosling, kitten.

In considering treatment, the teacher has an opportunity to appeal to the moral nature of the child; to call attention to the creature's mode of defense; as, The cow hooks, The horse kicks, The dog bites, The rabbit runs, The cat scratches, The bee stings, The bird flies; to teach two or three words which tell about the disposition; as, The lamb is gentle, The rabit is timid, The dog may be cross; and two or three others; as, shelter, protect, or defend. It need not be feared that the word is too long, if the idea be simple and clearly apprehended. A child says wheelbarrow as quickly as saw when he has a lively interest in the object.

It will be seen that there is no lack of material for Language Lessons in the most elementary schools. And there is no excuse for neglecting English in any schools. Children like to see things, and to talk about them. Grant them this right, enter into their spirit, and the path will be clear.

For Language Lessons for the Second Year.

23. Prepare a course of lessons similar to that sketched above. Use different objects. Introduce ideas and words which are a trifle more difficult; as in—

Color. Tint, shade, hue, with the name of the lightest tint and darkest shade of each color.

Sound. Pleasant sounds are musical (like music), sweet, soft, clear. Unpleasant sounds are harsh, shrill, etc.

Place. Against the wall, across the field, below the bridge, beyond the stream, through the gate, before and after dinner, beside the well, one between two, several among many, looking toward the window, etc.

Form. Parallel lines, strings, streets. Angle, right angle ("like my knife half open"), acute angle, obtuse angle. Figures: triangle, square, oblong, etc.

Animals. The cow has a long, tufted tail; the horse, a handsome mane; the dog, a shaggy coat; the deer, slender legs; the duck, webbed feet and glossy plumage, etc.

It is to be remembered that in this year the children "talk with their pencils." They should write a few words and one or two statements from every lesson. At first the teacher may write on the blackboard, and let the children observe and imitate. Later, the teacher may dictate what they are to write. At last, they may choose which of the statements made they would like to write.

In addition to the work outlined for the first year, they may have lessons:—

- 1. On fruits the parts, uses, and some of the qualities of each.
 - 2. On vegetables their names, and how they grow.
 - 3. On flowers—their names, colors, fragrance.
 - 4. Things found in digging a well.
 - 5. Things found in the sea.
 - 6. The names of the parts, and clothes of a doll.
 - 7. Things that are -

clean,	tough,	harsh,	old,
pretty,	rough,	bitter,	new,
dull,	coarse,	mellow,	warm,
bright,	sour,	sweet,	cool.

- 24. A course of lessons, more distinctively studies in language, may comprise:—
 - 1. Oral and written answers to questions about objects; as, (a) What is it? (b) Where is it? (c) What is the color of it? (d) Of what is it made? (e) What parts has it? (f) What kind of a . . . (naming part) has it? (g) What is the use of the . . . (naming part)?
 - 2. Oral descriptions of present or absent objects. To vary the oral exercises in describing absent objects, "Think of something; tell just how it looks, and see if we can guess what it is." The leading points of the description should be written upon the blackboard, that they may be verified after the object has been named.
 - 3. Using correctly the new words of the reading lesson. The meaning of a word may be illustrated by (a) an object, (b) a picture, (c) an action, or (d) a story (to illustrate sagacity, honesty, etc.).
 - 4. Finding out the meaning of the words in a little poem to be committed to memory. Expressing the ideas of the poem in other words.
 - 5. Telling a story from memory, or from a picture.

At first, aid the child by questions; as, Who is the story about? Whose little boy was he? What did he do? Who can tell the rest of the story?

The pupils are now old enough to speak distinctly, and with some degree of confidence. If the thought be not clearly expressed, or if the words be not distinctly spoken, act as if you could not understand. Give them necessary time. Do not seize a half-finished sentence, or finish it for the speaker. Do not expect to overcome an impediment of speech, or an established habit of enunciation, in a short time. But, never cease to try the virtue of encouragement, perseverance, and a slight pressure, constantly applied to remedy the evil.

- 25. Language Lessons for the Third and Fourth Years in School should be more systematic than those of the Perceptive stage. During the first two years language teaching is incidental, wholly subordinate to the training of the senses and the accumulation of sense perceptions. Now, the pupil is,—
- 1. As before, to broaden continually the horizon of his observation, and add to his vocabulary words which express the ideas acquired.
- 2. To pronounce, spell, write, and use correctly the new words learned from conversations, from oral lessons, or from his Reader.
- 3. To compare words and groups of words, (a) as to the ideas they express; (b) as to their spoken and written forms; thus,—

boy,	He is a tall boy.
boy's,	Is he a tall boy?
boys,	What a tall boy he is!
boys'.	Look at the tall boy.

4. To deduce the simpler laws of correct expression, and the common rules for the use of capitals and marks of punctuation.

For reference and review, he needs a record of his work, and Part I. of the Elementary Lessons in English is placed in his hands—to supplement, not to supplant, the instruction of the teacher. The pupil is to study flowers,—not Botany; animals,—not Zoölogy; English as he uses it or finds it in his books,—not Grammar.

- 26. Examples to be Studied.—It should be the invariable rule that the child is not to waste time studying the forms of a word before he knows what it means. As a safeguard of thoroughness in this respect, the words and sentences studied should be obtained from the class. The ideas to be expressed may be suggested by the teacher, by means,—
- 1. Of objects; as, hat, hats; tall, taller, tallest. The ball is made of wood.
- 2. Of pictures; as, a prancing horse. I see three eggs in the nest. Is it her nest?
- 3. Of questions; as, What day is this? What did Alice do? How does it run?
- Cautions. 1. If the class cannot give the word sought, accept any expression which shows that they have the idea, and teach the new word; as, glossy for "shiny."
- 2. In obtaining the examples to be written, be careful not to introduce the ideas or words which the lesson is designed to teach. If the children are to say that the examples are words, or names, do not ask, What is the name of this? but, What is this? Do not say, Spell the word, but, Spell . . . (mentioning the word).
- 3. Use capitals and all marks of punctuation correctly. As soon as the class learn a new rule for either, have them apply it in dictating the examples to be written on the board; thus, I am going to write what you said. What shall I make first? Next. Next. Why put the period there?
- 4. Obtain examples enough for the lesson. Do not allow the class to draw a general conclusion, even though

it be correct, from the examination of one or two particulars. After examining several examples, ask, What have you learned about this? or, What does this show? This? This? Find another that . . . Of how many of these is that true?

- 5. Toward the close of the lesson, before the examples are erased, have the children suggest, or select from a Reader, others which might be added to the list. Lead them to tell why the examples are classed together; in what they are alike, and to give in the form of a general statement what is taught by the lesson.
- 6. Do not teach exceptions to a rule until the rule has been thoroughly learned and applied. Then, as exceptions arise, dispose of them.
- 7. As a rule, put only correct forms and expressions upon the blackboard. Note the errors common in the school, and, when the proper forms have been taught, use these, rather than manufactured examples, to test the pupil's ability to correct mistakes.
- 27. Appliances.—1. Begin to keep a scrap-book of anecdotes which illustrate the habits or characteristic traits of animals, short stories, poems which the children can comprehend and learn, conundrums, puzzles,—whatever will inspire interest or lead the pupils to talk freely and naturally.
- 2. Collect pictures which the children will be glad to see, and can say something about. Keep the pictures out of sight until time for the Lesson. Do not paste them in a book. Leave them free, that they may be used each as a lesson for the entire class, or distributed among the

members of the class. (See Picture Lessons, Appendix to Teacher's Edition, page 269.)

- "Tell me about the picture" will produce better work than "Write a composition about the picture."
- 3. Aid the class to collect a cabinet of minerals common in the locality. Use flowers and fruits in their season. A stuffed animal, a natural curiosity, a fire, a new building or monument, an accident, Coasting, Prisoner's Base,—whatever the class are enthusiastic about, will furnish material for a language lesson.
- 28. Time and Arrangement of Lessons.—1. Pupils from eight to ten years of age may be profitably employed and interested in the same subject for from fifteen to thirty minutes. A lesson of thirty minutes should not appeal to the same sense or mental power throughout. Occupy the hand, then the voice; the ear, then the eye. Change from individual to class recitations, and from these to class decisions by uplifted hands. There must be time to supply information, to test knowledge, and to correct misapprehensions. If the lesson planned prove too long, teach less, not less thoroughly.
- 2. Exercises in application of something previously taught may be placed at the close of the day. When new matter is to be presented, the class should be fresh and ready for work,—as between nine and eleven A.M. The perceptive power differs in different children, and in the same child at different times. An observation lesson which has not been satisfactory should be repeated. The air should be pure, to prevent drowsiness. The objects, pictures, and illustrations used should be such as will

excite the interest of the class. The teacher should be cheerful, animated, and interested in the class and in the Lesson.

- 29. How to Prepare an Oral Lesson. 1. Decide just what, and how much, you will attempt to teach. Let the matter be new and interesting, if possible, but let it always be useful and suitable to the wants of the class.
- 2. Arrange the points, to be set forth by the lesson, in the natural order of their development or presentation. Decide what you will place upon the blackboard during the progress of the lesson. Arrange this matter in paragraphs, each complete in itself, and of moderate length. Underline all new words, and all words to be spelled or explained by the class.
- 3. Decide upon a method of giving the lesson, and choose the objects or illustrative examples to be used.
- 4. If the new lesson have any connection with what has been previously taught, consider how, and at what stage of the lesson, you will establish the relation between the known and the unknown, or but newly learned.
- 5. Prepare, in writing or in thought, a series of questions which will develop in their logical order all the points of the lesson. Try to think of contingencies that may arise,—as the failure of the class to answer some vital question, or to supply needful examples,—and determine what course to pursue.
- 6. Consider what review, if any, will properly introduce the lesson.* Generally, no introduction is required, and

none need be made unless a few pleasing remarks would seem to arouse curiosity, to stimulate interest, or to clear the way to a more thorough understanding of the lesson. The introduction should be brief, and may be the last thing prepared.

- 30. In giving the Lesson, the following cautions should be carefully observed:—
- 1. Fix the attention of the class upon one object, word, or group of words which illustrates the point of the lesson. Lead them to state clearly what they observe about this. Call attention to another, and lead them to state substantially the same. After examining many others, allow them to state in a general form the fact discovered. W. B. the statement, and require the class to find other cases to which it applies. Do not try to develop names, dates, or any arbitrary forms See § 12, page ix.
- 2. Beware of being drawn off by side issues. Keep the attention of the class fixed upon the point of the lesson. See that every pupil thinks. Talk with the class, not to them. Dispose hastily of what is found to be like something previously learned, and give the whole strength to what is new.
- 3. Each paragraph should be taught and recapitulated separately, as though it were the lesson for the time. See that each item in the lesson is mastered before proceeding to anything new. The arrangement of the work upon the board should be neat, orderly, and distinct. It should be sufficiently complete to show what has been taught, or to serve as a skeleton for a written reproduction of the lesson.

- 4. Be sure that each child understands what he is to do before he begins. If a requirement be new, have two or three different pupils state what they are to do before the class begin work.
- 5. Do not interrupt a pupil to correct an error of speech. When he has finished speaking, inquire first as to the truth and accuracy of what he said. Then ask who noticed any mistake. If no pupil observed an error, ask him to repeat what he said about . . . Or, repeat what he said, and ask him or some one else to say that in a better way, and point out the mistake in the first form. Without repressing enthusiasm, without ridicule or sarcasm, and without disagreeable fault-finding, strive always to get the class to speak correctly, clearly, and naturally. If there be confusion of thought, the sentence cannot be clear. Question the pupil until the thought is well defined; then let him reshape his sentence.
- 31. "To point out to the child where, how, and why he is wrong, is the teacher's indispensable function."—BAIN.

To give and receive criticism in the right spirit is one of the important lessons of the school. It need hardly be said that carping and fault-finding are not helpful criticism,—that sarcasm and ridicule have no place in an elementary school.

Children speak the English that they hear. It is not easy to correct verbal mistakes at the right time and in the right way. (See § 2, page x., Caution 3, page xxi., and § 5 above.) Sometimes it is better to drill the entire class upon a correct form, and *incidentally* criticize the pupil who made the mistake.

In criticizing each other, let the class feel that a test exercise, like any out-door sport, is a trial of skill; that all are interested in the result, and all equally anxious to see fair play. The pupil criticized should feel that, as it would be very embarrassing to go among strangers and make mistakes in using English, it is better to be corrected in school, where all are friends, and all are trying to learn.

- 32. The Written Exercises may be corrected in a variety of ways.
- 1. If the exercise be for practice simply, approach from the back of the room, glance over a slate, remark "You have made a mistake," and let the writer see if he can find and correct it himself.

Or, when all have finished writing, allow the class a moment in which to look over their work, and call upon a pupil to stand and read what he has written,—mentioning capitals, marks of punctuation, etc. Hear or suggest criticisms and corrections. Or, have the pupils exchange slates, and call upon one to read and criticise the exercise on the slate he holds. Or, select a pupil to transfer his exercise to the board. Write the correct form beside it. Let the class compare the two, and point out the mistakes in the former.

2. Dictation and test exercises call for closer scrutiny. At first, every slate should be corrected by the teacher.*

^{*} In written spelling it is sufficient to check an error, and refer the pupil to his book for the correct form. In the language exercises the correction to be made must be indicated by the critic. It is therefore necessary to agree upon certain signs to be used and understood alike by pupils and teacher. The signs employed by proof-readers are simple and definite. A knowledge of these will form a valuable addition to the practical education of any boy or girl. The half-dozen required in correcting manuscript errors will be quickly learned. No sign should be taught

Later, pupils who wrote the exercise without a mistake may be called upon to compare the work of other pupils with their own, and to mark, not correct, the errors. No erasures should be allowed. The critic should write his name on the slate criticized. If many errors were found, the pupil should rewrite the exercise, and show both the first draft and the revision to the teacher.

Constant attention should be paid to the general appearance of the slate. Neatness, tasteful arrangement, and legible penmanship should be commended, and brought to the attention of the class. As a rule, praise the work rather than the pupil.

Have a plan for collecting and distributing the slates without noise, delay, or confusion. See that the same two pupils do not always exchange slates. If both were impartial, it would still be better to look over the slates of others and learn to read different kinds of penmanship.

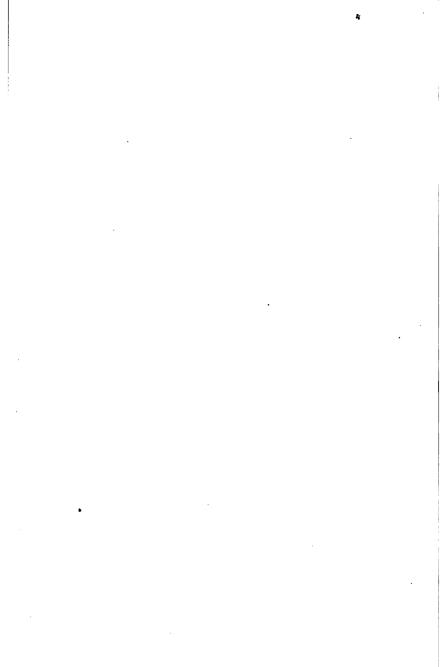
Keep a list of errors common in the class, correct them on the blackboard, and use them a few days later for a dictation exercise. Put only the correct forms before the class. If the errors were committed by but few of the class, they may be corrected orally by other pupils, or by the teacher, and the pupil who erred may write the proper forms on the blackboard, and tell wherein they were wrong.

To vary the plan of correcting a dictation or test exercise, let the pupils exchange slates, and the teacher read

until the error which it indicates is found in the work of the pupil. Then the error should be pointed out, the use of the sign illustrated on the blackboard, and the sign and its name kept upon the board for several days; thus A caret (wanting), something left out.

(mentioning capitals, etc.), or W. B. the correct form while each pupil marks the errors on the slate handed him. After the writer has rewritten the exercise, the teacher may look over both the first form and the revision. Or, the pupils may silently correct the slates by the use of the signs taught, and when the slates are returned, each writer may be called upon to state what he has wrong, and how he will correct it.

The use of paper instead of a slate may be introduced at the discretion of the teacher. It is better to have the exercises written at school, where the pupil is thrown upon his own resources, and may be limited in time. The *Home Tasks* are given, not as tests of thoroughness, but to broaden the application of what is taught in school, and to show that the lesson has to do with things outside the school-room.



TEACHERS are warned, as they value the element of life and spirit in teaching, to abstain from a parrot-like repetition of the *Methods* outlined in this, or any other, book.

These *Methods* are prepared for study and imitation. They are intended to be suggestive, not to forestall originality; to stimulate and direct effort, not to save trouble.

Teachers without experience may follow the *Methods* closely for a few lessons, but, in oral teaching, the power to devise and pursue one's own plans is gained rapidly, and such plans cannot fail to be superior to these, because founded upon a knowledge of the attainments and needs of the class to be taught.

N. L. K.

Boston, May 10, 1880.

EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

THE Object enumerates the mental powers to be cultivated by the lesson.

The **Point** states briefly what is to be taught in the lesson.

The Matter is the full statement to be obtained from, or given to, the class in summing up the lesson.

The Method shows one plan of developing the lesson.

The Summary contains a review and application of what has been taught.

·0200

ABBREVIATIONS USED.

Tr			. Teacher.
Ch			. Child.
Chn			. Children.
Sp			. Spell.
			. Write on the blackboard.
I. R			. Individual recitation.
S. R			. Simultaneous recitation.
H. R			. Hands raised.
Tr. con.			. Teacher confirm.
C. D			. Class decide.
Chn. st.			. Children state.

ELEMENTARY LESSONS IN ENGLISH.

TEACHER'S EDITION.

Exercise 1. — (Dictation.)

To the Teacher. — 1. See that each pupil is supplied with a quarter-sheet of foolscap and a hard lead-pencil, or pen and ink.

- 2. Do not act as if the task were a formidable one. Encourage the children to write as well as they can without help.
- 3. Be sure that every word to be written is understood, but do not render any further assistance.
- 4. Dictate in a pleasant tone of voice, slowly, and distinctly, the following: —

Exercise. — Write your name. Write: I saw the boys. The bird's nest is in the tree. Do you see the birds? They came in May. Ann came Friday.

** Collect the papers and file them without criticism. At the close of the year repeat this exercise, correct the second set of papers, and return both sets to the class.

ORAL LESSONS TO PRECEDE LESSON I.+

NOTE. — These lessons are prepared for children of from eight to ten years. Older classes will readily take Methods I., II., and III. in one lesson. With all pupils, the distinction between a word and what is named or expressed by the word should be sharply defined and constantly kept in view.

Object. — To cultivate the observing powers, memory, reason, and language.

Point.—To teach the term *objects*; to mark the distinction between objects, pictures, and words; to show that some words are the names of persons, some of places, some of things.

[†] For explanation of terms and abbreviations used, see the opposite page.

Appliances. — Several objects of various kinds, and two or three pictures; in order to insure thoroughness, to give what is new in the lesson a general application, to obtain from the class different kinds of name-words.

Introduction. — This should be brief, and adapted to the circumstances of the class. It may be omitted altogether, unless necessary to put the class in better condition for work.

Matter: -

- I. The hat, pencil, book, bird, etc. are objects.
- II. The picture of a bird, hat, cat, tree, etc. looks like the object, and makes us think of it.
- III. The words bird, cat, tree, etc. do not look like the objects, but they make us think of them.
 - IV. Some words are names
- V. Some words are the names of persons; some words are the names of places; some words are the names of things.

METHOD I.

Tr. (selecting one from the various objects provided, and holding it up so that all in the class can see it). What is this?—Chn. A book.—Tr. All tell me what this is.—Chn. A book.—Tr. What is this?—Chn. A box.—Tr. What is this?—Chn. A hat.—Tr. Frank, you may tell me what this is.—Ch. That is a hat.—Tr. Edith, let me hear you say hat.—Ch. Hat.—Tr. The class may tell me what this is.—Chn. A knife.

In a similar manner have various objects in the room named, pausing occasionally for a brief drill in pronunciation.

Tr. If we wished to speak of all these at once, without saying the knife, pencil, box, etc., what might we call them?—Chn. Things.—Tr. How many of you think that we might call the pencil, box, knife, etc. things?—H. R.—Tr. Yes, they are things. Who can think of another word which we may use, instead of things, to mean all these?—Accept any correct answer, as articles. If the children do not give the term objects,—Tr. The hat, I. The hat, pencil, pencil, knife, book—all these things—are objects. book, etc. are ob—What are they?—Chn. Objects.—W. B. the word jects.

Ob-jects and drill on pronunciation and spelling.—Have the children copy the word on their slates.

Application.

1. As the Tr. points to various things, the children name each, and say that it is an object.

2. Tr. Gertrude, you may bring me an object from your desk. Hold it before the class; tell them what it is, and whether it is an object or not.

Gertrude. This is a pencil-case. A pencil-case is an object.

The children should be encouraged, and assisted by questions, to express their thoughts in full statements.

- 3. Many other pupils called upon to bring forward objects, or mention objects which they have seen, until the new term is familiar, and can be readily used.
- Tr. To-morrow I shall ask you to tell me of five objects which you saw at home or on the way to school.

Home-Task.

Have one or two of the children state what they are to do.

METHOD II.

Call upon the children to name the objects which they saw out of school. If they name only inanimate objects, Tr. Who saw on his way to school an object that could walk?— Who can mention an object that flies in the air? One that can swim? One that laughs? sings? runs? jumps?— Mention an object that talks; one that barks; one that catches mice; one that shines in the sky, etc., until the children generalize their idea of an object.

Tr. (calling attention to a picture). What is this? — II. The picture of a Chn. A bird. — Tr. How many think so? — H. R. bird, cat, hat, tree, Tr. Who can tell something that a bird does? — H. R. or chair looks like -Chn. A bird eats seed, drinks water, flies, sings, the object and makes us think of it. builds its nest, puts its head under its wing to sleep. -Tr. (referring to picture). How many of you think that this bird can do that? — Chn. No, no! It is only a picture of a bird. — Tr. What is this? — Chn. A picture of a bird. — Lead Chn. to state that they called it a bird, because it looks like a bird and makes them think of a bird, but that it is only the picture of a bird. By a similar plan distinguish between the pictures of a hat, tree, boy, horse, cat, etc., and the objects, and obtain similar state-

METHOD III.

ments.

NOTE. — If the following be given as a separate lesson, the class should take a hasty review of the previous lesson or lessons.

1. Tr. I am going to put (do not say write or print) something on the blackboard, and, as soon as I raise my hand, you may tell me what you see. Conceal a small space, and write "a bird."—Tr. Now ready! When I lift my hand, tell me what you see. —Chn. A bird. —Tr. What do you see?—Chn. A bird. —Tr. (pointing). How many of you think this is a bird?—C.D. that it is not, that they do not see a bird, but that they see the words

- "a bird."—Tr. call upon one ch. to take the pointer and show the word bird.—Ch. does so.—Tr. What word is that?—Chn. The word bird.—Tr. (pointing to a). What word is this?—Chn. The word a.—Tr. I will erase this and you may read the word that is left.—Chn. read the word bird.—Tr. What is this?—Chn. That is the word bird.
- 2. Tr. Of what does this word make you think? Chn. A bird. C. D. Tr. How many think that the word looks like a bird? C. D. that it does not, but it makes them think of a bird. Question to lead them to state II. and III. By asking one child to make a picture of a bird while another writes the word bird, develop the idea that it is easier to write the word bird than to make a picture of a bird; that the words take less space, and make us think of the object just as the picture would; and that we can speak the word, but cannot speak the picture.
- III. The word bird (cat, hat, tree, etc.) does not look like the object, but makes us think of it.
- 3. Have one ch. find a picture of a bird, another show the word bird in a book or on the board, and others tell about a bird that can fly, sing, etc. (They will say a "real bird," or in some way distinguish the object from its representation.) By a similar plan examine

the words cat, hat, tree, etc.

Home-Task. — Write five words that make you think of objects of which you have seen pictures.

NOTE. — Let the task be a lesson in spelling and pronunciation, as well as a test of their understanding of what has been taught.

CAUTION. — In every exercise every day, see that the pupils express their thoughts in clear, full statements, and use only good words.

They should hear from the teacher none but good English, clear, pure, and simple.

METHOD IV.*

- 1. Tr. (showing an object). What is this?—Chn. st.—C. D. and spell the word.—Tr. W. B.—Chn. read and say that the word makes them think of (mentioning the object). By reference to other objects obtain two or three more words.
- 2. Tr. (pointing to a word). Who gave me this word?—Ch. John.—Tr. Who can spell the word John?—H. R.—Chn. Sp. and Tr. W. B. using a capital without remark. Question to obtain two or three other

^{*} Examples to be used in a development lesson should be obtained from the class. Children should not be asked to read and write words which they cannot pronounce properly and use correctly.

names of children in the class. Have the names spelled and write them on the board. Avoid using the term "name" while obtaining examples. Use a capital in writing the names, but say nothing of it at the time, as the attention of the class should be held to the point of the lesson.

3. Tr. In what place (or near what place) do we live?—Chn. st. If they cannot spell the word, Tr. W. B. very plainly and drill the class on the spelling and pronunciation.

Obtain and W. B. two or three other familiar names of places, using capitals without comment.

4. Tr. (referring to the various words on the board). What are these?—Chn. Words. — C. D., Tr. con. — Tr. Harry, you may read a word from the board and tell us of what object it makes you think. - Ch. does so. - Tr. commends. - Tr. Who can read another word from the blackboard and tell of what object it makes us think. - H. R. - Chn. do so. - Tr. (pointing to a name of a person). What is this? — Chn. John. — Tr. How many of you think this is John? - C. D. that it is the word John. - Tr. Of what do you think when you see this word? — Chn. Of him, — of that boy, — of the boy John. — Tr. Why does this word make you think of that boy? — Chn. Because it is his name. — Tr. What is his name? — Chn. The word John is his name. - Tr. Of what is the word John the name? - Chn. The word John is the name of the boy John. —C. D., Tr. con. —I. R., S. R.— IV. The words apple, Tr. Who can find another word on the board that is aJohn, chalk, Mary. name, and tell me of what it is the name? - Ch. finds Boston, a word, and says, "The word —— is the name of ——." names. Same of others. If chn. hesitate to speak of the names of things as names, Tr. should question to lead them to tell of what the words make them think, and that they make them think of those objects because they are the names of the objects.

Tr. How many of these words are names?—Ch. All of them.—C. D., Tr. con.—Tr. What have you learned about these words?—Ch. Those words are names.

- 1. Tr. refers to objects. Chn. mention their names.

 2. Th. I month the same and the same and
- 2. Tr. I would like every one of you to look at an object. Raise your hand when you can tell its name. The child called upon should be led to give the name, to say that the thing is an object, that the name is a word, that the word is the name of the object.
- ** Vary the exercise as much as possible to sustain interest, insure thoroughness, and generalize the idea of the use of words as names.

Home-Task. -- Write on your slate five words that are names.

Suggestions. — 1. In all of the earlier exercises the work of the pupils should be looked over by the teacher.

- 2. Make this exercise a test (a) of whether the words are names; (b) of the spelling of the words.
- 3. Make a list of any words misspelled by several of the class and place the *correct forms* of these upon the blackboard for drill. They may be subsequently given as a dictation exercise.
- 4. Explain to the class which sign shows that the word is not a name, and which shows that the word is misspelled. See that each understands why his word, or words, could not be accepted.
- 5. Call upon those who had every word right to stand; those who had only one word wrong; those who had two, or more than two. Praise and encourage as far as possible.
- 6. It will be a fair ratio of drill to have each pupil write correctly every misspelled word a number of times equal to the number of misspelled words on his slate, twice if he misspelled two, three times if three, and so on.

CAUTIONS.—1. Do not exact perfection in the writing of these exercises. Pupils should be held responsible for what they have been taught, and for nothing more. Have patience.

2. Accustom the eye to correct forms only. As a rule, do not put errors upon the blackboard; the corrections should go there.

METHOD V.

V. 1. Some words are the names of persons.
2. Some words are the names of places.
3. Some words are the names of things.

Ask one portion of the class to be ready to give the name of a child in school; another, to give the name of a man; another, to give the name of a woman. Obtain five of these. W. B. (using the capitals without comment). — Tr. Each of you think of some city or town or village which you have seen, or of which you have heard or read. Be ready to tell me the name of it.

Obtain and W. B., using capitals without calling attention to them. Obtain and W. B. five names of objects made of wood, iron, tin, or glass. Tr. (referring to all the words). What are these? — Chn. Words. — C. D. — Tr. Yes, they are words. What else are they? — Chn. Names. — C. D. — Tr. How many of these words are names? — C. D. that all are. — Tr. (referring to names of persons). Of what is this word the name? and this? — Tr. Use one word that means men, women, and children. — Chn. Folks, people, persons. — C. D. — If chn. do not give

term persons, — Tr. There is a word which means the same as folks or people, and I like it better; can you tell what it is? Men, women, and children are persons. — I. R., S. R. — Tr. These words (pointing) are the names of — Chn. Persons. — Tr. Instead of saying, "This is the name of a man," of what may we say that it is the name? - Chn. Of a person. - Same of the other names of persons. Tr. (pointing to one column). How many of these words are names of persons? — Ch. All of them. — C. D. — Tr. (still pointing) What have you learned about these words? - Chn. Those words are the names of persons. — Tr. What do we mean by persons? Read a word here that is the name of a person. Mention a person whose name is not on the board. — Tr. What have we learned about these words? - Chn. Those words are the names of persons. — In a similar way question chn. to lead them to say that a city, town, etc. are places, and that the words of the second list are names of places. Refer to names of things. - Ch. They are names. - Tr. Of what are these words the names? — Chn. may say of objects. — Tr. What is an object? - Chn. Anything which we can see or touch is an object. - Call attention to the fact that persons and places are objects, and ask them what they can call stoves, houses, etc. to show that they are not persons or places. - Chn. Things. — Tr. con. and lead them to mention the words on the board which are the names of persons, those which are the names of places, and those which are the names of things. - Obtain and W. B. : -

> Some words are the names of persons. Some words are the names of places. Some words are the names of things.

Chn. read and copy.

NOTE. — The names of materials and of parts of things will be added soon (Lessons I. and II., Chap. IV.). Names of actions and of qualities are omitted until much later, because, being abstract, they are difficult to treat, and also because the children would be likely to confuse the name of a quality, as brittle.

POINTS FOR ORAL REVIEW.

- 1. Have the chn. mention objects which they have seen (a) in a store, (b) at home, (c) on a farm, (d) at night, (c) on the water.
- Present a picture and review the distinction between objects, pictures, and words.
 - 3. Put a list of words on the board, including several which are not names;

as by, a, with, or. Lead the chn. to say that they are words, and tell which words are names.

- 4. Mention the name of a young person, an old person, a sick person. What do we mean by persons?
- 5. Mention the name of a village, a city, a State, a country. What do we call villages, cities, etc. ?
- 6. Of what are these words the names: window, album, bird, glass, doll?

 Introduction of Books.

A short conversation as to the use, care, and name of the book.

Note. — If the pupils be old enough, a few moments may be given to the following points: —

All the words which we speak make up our language; we speak the English language; how many have heard or can speak any other language; our lessons are to be in the *English language*, the language spoken by the people of England, Canada, and the United States.

CAUTION. — If any exercise, task, or lesson seem too long, it may be shortened, —

- (a) By omitting any points upon which the pupils do not require practice.
- (b) By diminishing the amount of work prescribed by each point.
- (c) By giving the entire amount of work, but making two or more divisions of it.

Be warned, on the one hand, against requiring more work, or work that is more difficult, than the average of the class can do well, and, on the other, against assigning tasks too trivial to demand the best effort. While the work should never exceed, it should tend constantly to raise the level of power in the class.

Figures in brackets show on what page the exercise or lesson will be found in the children's book; as [1] page 11, [4] page 17.

CHAPTER I.

NAMES, AND HOW TO WRITE THEM.

LESSON I.

Preceded by oral lessons indicated in Teacher's Edition.

- 1. Tell me the names of three persons; as, Frank, Mary.
- 2. Tell me the names of three places; as, New York, America.
- 3. Tell me the names of four things in the school-room; as, table, inkstand.
- 4. Tell me the names of two things seen at home; as, bed, plate.
- 5. Mention the names of two things seen in the sky; as, sun.
- 6. Mention the names of two animals.
- 7. Speak the names of two plants.
- Tell me the names of two things which you would like to have.

Some words are the names of persons. Some words are the names of places. Some words are the names of things.*

^{*} Paragraphs printed in this type throughout the book are designed to sum up, and preserve for review, salient points of the preceding oral lesson. Pupils who were absent when the oral lesson was given may be required to state the substance of these paragraphs; for others, it will be sufficient to have them read aloud in the class.

9. Read these words: -

Susan	slate	London	Detroit
star	ball	\mathbf{window}	pencil
icicle	George	blackboard	dog
house	sheep	clock	Edith
Chicago	sled	Hartford	Albert

Development Questions.—(a.) How many of these words are names?
(b.) Tell of what each is the name. (c.) Copy the words that are the names of persons. Read them from your slate. (d.) Copy the words that are the names of places. Read them from your slate.

- (e.) What is the first letter of the word Susan? What kind of a letter is it?
- (f.) Read the next word in the list that begins with a capital. Of what is this word the name?
- (g.) Read any other words in the list that are the names of persons or places, and look at the first letter of each word.
- I. The first letter of a word that is the name of a person should be a capital letter; as, Frank, Alice, Charles.*
- II. The first letter of a word that is the name of a place should be a capital letter; as, Denver, Troy, Bangor.

HOME TASK.

- 1. Find in a book five words that are the names of persons; look at the first letter of each word; copy the names.
- 2. Find in a book five words that are the names of places; look at the first letter of each word; copy the names.
- 3. Learn I. and II.

EXERCISE 1.

- 1. Write your name.
- 2. Write the name of the place in which you live.

^{*} Paragraphs noted by Roman numerals should be committed to memory.

- 3. Write four words that are the names of things.
- 4. Write the name of the State in which you live.*
- 5. Write the name of a place which you would like to see.
- 6. Find a picture in your Reader, and write the names of three things seen in the picture.
- 7. Copy two names of persons.
- Teach orally, by aid of the blackboard, the use of and 1. c. in correcting slates. [See A and B, page 18.]

Exercise 2. — (Dictation.)

Plan. — Prepare a list of ten names easy to spell, — three of persons, three of places, four of things. Arrange the names in miscellaneous order. Dictate slowly, adding after each word "the name of a girl," "the name of a place," etc. Do not render any further assistance. After the words are written, read the entire list and give the class two or three minutes in which to revise their work.

PLAN FOR ORAL CRITICISM.

- 1. Name a pupil who is to stand and keep his slate.
- 2. Have the others exchange slates, each pupil writing his name upon the slate received.
- 3. Direct the pupil who is standing to pronounce distinctly and spell slowly and clearly the words of the exercise. He should indicate by the spelling when the first letter of the word is a capital; thus, "Troy, capital T-r-o-y, Troy."
- 4. Direct the class to look on the slates given them and mark the errors; (a) in the use or omission of capitals, by \equiv and l. c.; (b) in spelling, by placing a + before the word misspelled.
- NOTE. If the pupil standing report from his slate a mistake in spelling, or omit to mention a capital, the class are to show it by raising their hands. Errors may be corrected by the class orally, or by the Tr. at the blackboard. If the class do not detect the mistake, Tr. Read that again. How many have it so? Oral criticism and blackboard correction.
- . 5. Slates returned to writers. Two or three minutes given to finding mistakes.

The name of the place in (or near) which the children live, and the name of the State, may be written upon the blackboard, and allowed to remain as a model for study and practice in writing.

CAUTION. — Do not allow a pupil to appeal from a criticism on the ground that he "meant that for an n, not a u," etc. Look at the slate, but hold to the rule that every letter must be so perfect that there can be no doubt about it.

6. Call upon those who had no mistakes to stand. Select one or two to write the exercise upon the blackboard.

Call upon those who had one mistake; two mistakes; more than two. In each case see that they know what is wrong, and how to correct it.

- 7. Call attention to the work upon the board. With the aid of the class make all necessary corrections.
 - 8. Pupils rewrite the words in which they made mistakes.
 - If there were many errors, repeat the dictation a few days later.

ORAL LESSONS TO PRECEDE LESSON II.

Object. - To cultivate perception, memory, reason, and language.

Point. — To develop the idea that it is important to speak and write the name of a person very plainly; also, to teach the meaning and use of the terms full name, Christian name, and surname.

Matter. —

- I. The name of a person should be spoken very distinctly.
- II. The last or family name is called the surname.
- III. The name given to each child is called the Christian name.
- IV. The full name is made up of both the Christian name and the surname.
 - V. The name of a person should be written very plainly.

METHOD.

Tr. (to a pupil). What is your name? — Accept answer if the name be spoken distinctly, whether the full name be given or not. — Tr. John, you may speak your name. — Ch. does so. — Ask if all the class heard the name; and if they would have understood the name if they had never heard it before. Tr. How many can speak their own names so plainly that all can understand them? Have several of the pupils speak their names.

Tr. Who can speak the name of some one that noI. The name of a person should be spoken
very distinctly.

Tr. How many of you know what Alfred said?— How
many can speak the name he mentioned?— You may
try.— Ch. does so.— If the name was not understood by all, have it repeated,
and, if necessary, W. B. and drill the class and the ch. who gave it upon the

Teach that loudness is not distinctness. Have other distinct utterance of it. names given, and drill the class upon the distinct utterance of each. Speak of the inconvenience of not knowing the names of persons to whom we speak, and the embarrassment of having to ask them their names. Impress the class with the importance of always speaking their own names clearly and promptly, and of mentioning the names of others so distinctly that they will not fail to be understood.

W. B. the first name of a pupil in the class; as Frank. Question the chn. to lead them to state that it II. The last or family is a word, -a name, - a name of a person. Tr. How many of you know a person named Frank? - H. R.

name is called the Surname.

How many know of more than one person named Frank !- H. R. - Tr. How can you tell from the board of which of those persons this word is the name? - C. D. that they cannot tell. - Tr. What can I write here to show that it is the name of our Frank, - a boy in our school ? - Chn. say that the Tr. should write his "other name." - Tr. What is Frank's other name? -Chn. dictate and Tr. W. B. Darrow. - Chn. read the name and say that it is the name of a boy in school. - Lead them to state that they know others named Darrow, - all Frank's brothers and sisters, and his father and mother, - the whole family. Tell them that a long time ago a father was called a sire, a grandfather, a grandsire. Because the family name is the father's name it was called the sire name, - the sirname, - the surname. W. B. the word surname. Drill on pronunciation and spelling. Call upon a few of the children to speak their surnames, and tell who else has the same surname. Have others tell what the word surname means, and why the last or family name is called the surname. Obtain and W. B. II. Have the chn. read it. Drill on the pronunciation and spelling of all the new or difficult words; as, last, family, surname. I. R., S. R. of II.

Obtain and W. B. the full name of each of two children belonging to the same family. Lead the class III. The name given to read the names; to read the surname; to say that both chn. have the same surname because both belong

to each child is called the Christian Name.

to the same family, and that the surname shows to what family one belongs. Tr. point to and chn. read "the rest" of each name; say that the first names, and middle names, of the children are unlike; that they are different

to show which one of the family is meant.

Tr. How does this (pointing to Christian name) happen to be your name, Fanny ?— Ch. My mother gave it to me. — In a similar way lead the other child to say how he came by his first and middle name. - Tr. What may we call this part of Fanny's name, because it was given to her? - Ch. or Tr. The name given to a person is called his given name. - Tr. Read Arthur's given name. - Chn. do so. - Tr. Why do we call that his given name? -Chn. st. - Call upon a few chn. to mention first their given names and then their surnames.

By reference to some incident familiar to the school, obtain the fact that the names are sometimes given to children at church, when they are christened, and teach that the given name is called the Christian name. If the chn. do not know this from their own observation, the Tr. must briefly tell them about it, and question to obtain, and W. B. III. Drill as before.

IV. The Full Name is made up of both and Surname.

W. B. the Full Name of a child in school. Whose name is this? - H. R. - Tr. How much of your name the Christian Name is it? — Ch. All of my name. — Tr. (to the school). What do we call this part of Laura's name? — Why? —

What does the surname show ? - What do we call this part of the name ? - Why? - What is the use of the Christian name? - Read all of Laura's name. — Who can tell what we call all of one's name? — Ch. or Tr. The whole name is called the Full Name. — I. R., S. R. A few of the chn. asked to speak their full names. - Tr. Of what is the Full Name made up? - Chn. say, as Tr. points to each, "The Full Name is made up of both the Christian Name and Surname." - I. R., S. R. - Tr. W. B. IV. and drill as above. - Chn. read II., III., and IV.

V. The name of a perten very plainly.

Send some of the children to the board to write their v. The name of a per-son should be writ- full names. Question class as to when and where persons need to write their names, — in books, at the close of letters, in signing receipts, etc.

Show that we may sometimes guess at a word that is not written plainly by what goes before or comes after it, but we cannot find out what the name of a person is unless it be written very plainly. Speak of the great inconvenience and loss which sometimes follow not being able to read the name of a person who signs a letter. Obtain V. Give slate and blackboard practice in writing names very plainly. Teach that a name is written plainly enough when every letter of it, looked at alone, may be readily recognized.

LESSON II.

Preceded by dictation exercise and oral lesson indicated in Teacher's Edition.

Tell which of these are full names: -

Tom,

Maggie,

Thomas Arnold.

Margaret Fuller.

Charlie, Charles Francis Adams.

When asked your name, give your full name.

Always speak and write your name so plainly that it cannot be misunderstood.*

- The last name, or family name, is called the Surname; the name given to each child is called the given name or Christian Name: the Full Name is made up of both the Christian Name and the Surname.
- The Christian name may be one name, or two names, or more than two; as, Charles Dickens, John Quincy Adams, George Henry Allison Smith.
- III. Every name that is a part of the name of a person should begin with a capital letter; thus, George Alfred Flint, not, George alfred flint.
- IV. When the name of a place is made up of two words, the first letter of each word should be a capital; as, New York, South Carolina, British America, Little Rock.

^{*} Paragraphs printed in this type are designed to preserve, for reference and study, matters that have been taught orally. While the pupil need not recite them verbatim, he should be able to state clearly, and to make a daily use or application of, what is taught in them.

HOME TASK.

- 1. Learn to write your full name.
- 2. Learn to write the name of your country.

Exercise 1.

- 1. Write your full name.
- 2. Draw one line under your Christian name and two lines under your surname.
- 3. Write the names of five objects that you saw on your way to school.
- 4. Write your teacher's surname.
- 5. Write the name of the country in which you live.
- 6. Copy I. and II. in Lesson I., and III. and IV. in Lesson II.
- A. This = shows that the letter under which it is drawn should have been a capital; thus, richmond, cincinnati, margaret.
- B. When this / is drawn through a letter, and l. c. (lower case) is placed in the margin, it shows that the capital used should have been a small letter; thus,
- l. c. The Book is on the Table.

Exercise 2. — (Dictation.)

Plan. - 1. Prepare to dictate a list of ten names similar to the following: -

James, sheep,
bread, Springfield,
hammer, North Carolina,
Ella, mouse,
George ≜mes, squirrel.

- 2. Send two pupils to the blackboard; one to write only the names which he thinks should begin with capitals, the other to write those which he thinks should begin with small letters. The class is to look on, and not show by any sign when a mistake has been made. Dictate the words of your list.
- 3. When the writing is done the two pupils return to their places and the class criticise the work as to the following points:—
 - (a) Any words in one list that should be in the other.
 - (b) Legibility, neatness, arrangement, spelling.
 - (c) Reason for using each capital, correctly used.
 - 4. Erase the names from the board.
 - 5. Dictate:

Write your full name.

Write: (the words of the prepared list).

6. Criticise slates by the use of signs, and return them for the rewriting of the words thus corrected.

ORAL EXERCISE TO PRECEDE LESSON III.

1. Present an object (as an apple) and have it named.* Chn. sp. the word apple. Tr. W. B. — Tr. On what does an apple grow? — Chn. st. and sp. the word tree. — Tr. W. B. — Tr. What is the color of this apple? — Chn. st. and sp. the word. — Tr. W. B.

As the Tr. points to a word, the chn. pronounce it. — As the Tr. points to its initial, the chn. name the letter. — Tr. Which letter of the word is this? — Ch. The first letter. — C. D. — Tr. You may read a word from the board, and name the first letter of the word. — Ch. does so. — C. D. — Same of other words. — Tr. Who can tell what the first letter of a word is called? — Ch. or Tr. The first letter of a word is called its initial or initial letter. — I. R., S. R. — W. B. the word in-i-tial and drill the class on its spelling and pronunciation.

- 2. The Tr. will speak a word, the class are to name its initial. Same of several words in quick succession.
- 3. The Tr. will mention a letter, the chn. are to speak a word which has that letter for its initial. Repeat with several letters and words.
- 4. The chn. may mention (or write) a list of words and name (or mark) the initial of each.
 - 5. Obtain and W. B. the Full Name of a ch. in the class. Review Rule

^{*} See note, page 6. Also § 26, page xxxvii.

III. for the use of capitals. Lead the chn. to mention the initial of each name and the initials of the full name. Erase all of each name except the initial. Chn. tell what was done and what remains. Question to lead them to state that the names were written with capitals and that the initials are capitals.

- 6. Blackboard practice in writing the initials of the full name. Teach the use of the period after each initial.
 - 7. Send a few chn. to the board and dictate : -
 - (a) Write the initials of your full name. (C. P. D.)
 - (b) Write your first name; the initial only of your middle name; your surname. (Charles P. Davis.)
 - (c) Write the initials only of your Christian name; your surname.(C. P. Davis.)
- 8. Call upon the chn. to mention a place whose name is made up of two words; as, New York. Require the rule for the use of capitals in writing such names. W. B. the name. Lead the chn. to mention the initial of each word. Erase all but the initials. Teach that the initials should be capitals, and that a period should be placed after each.
- 9. Blackboard practice in writing the names and the initials of the names of places; as, South America, United States.

Note. — The Home Tasks promote thoroughness by requiring the pupils to remember and apply out of school the lesson of the day. They should be short, practical, and diverting. As a Home Task to follow the above exercise, the chn. may be asked to look at the signs which they pass in going to and from school, and see if the capitals and periods are correctly used; or, to be prepared to-morrow to write upon the blackboard the initials of the name of some one at home.

LESSON III.

INITIALS.

Preceded by oral exercise indicated in Teacher's Edition.

1. Mention the first letter of each of these words:—

boy window queen box George Hudson Charles island Mary fan

- 2. What is the first letter of a word called ?
 The first letter of a word is called its initial, or initial letter.
- Give the initials of each of these full names: —
 James Monroe. John Jacob Astor. William Harvey.
- Sometimes the initials are used instead of the name of a person; as, H. H. for Helen Hunt.*
- Very often the surname is written and the initials only of the Christian name are used; as, D. C. Eliot, M. Clark.
- Quite as often the surname and the first name are written, while the initial only of the middle name is used; as, Lydia M. Child.
- V. When an initial letter is used instead of a name of a person, it should be a capital, and a period [.] should be placed after it; thus, John G. Saxe, J. G. Saxe, J. G. S.†
- When the name of a place is made up of two words, the initials are sometimes used instead of the name; as, N. Y. for New York: R. I. for Rhode Island.

^{*} See note, page 1.

[†] See note, page 2.

- VI. When the initials of the name of a place are used instead of the name, they should be capital letters, and a period should be placed after each; thus, U. S. for United States.
- 4. Mention another use of the period.
- VI. When the name of a person is written alone, on a card or slate, in a book or on a sign, or at the close of a letter, it should be followed by a period; as, Rufus Grant.

Exercise 1.

Write each of these names correctly: -

John f. Ellis	north america	h. b. Hudson
J e. Clark	Trenton, N J	T. E. brown
charles Upton	Albany, n y	C E Wagner

Oral and blackboard criticism.

NOTE. — In reading from your slate, or in dictating what is to be written on the blackboard, when you come to a capital or period, mention it; thus, "T. E. Brown, Capital T. (period), capital E. (period), capital B-r-o-w-n, Brown."

HOME TASK.

- 1. Write your full name.
- 2. Write your initials.
- 3. Write your surname, and use before it the initials of your Christian name.
- 4. Write the initials of the name of your country.
- Write your name as you would write it on a card or in a book.

EXERCISE 2. — (Review.)

A. — ORAL.

- 1. Speak two words that are the names of objects.
- 2. Name (a) an object that is round; (b) one that is heavy; (c) one that is made of wood; (d) one that can talk; (e) one that can sing; (f) one that can swim; (g) one that grows, but cannot move from place to place.
- 3. Read these words, and tell of what each is the name:

 Saint Louis tree Fanny
- 4. Speak the name of, —
 a village, a city, a state, a country.
- 5. How should a word that is the name of a person or place be written?
- 6. How should you always speak and write your own name?
- 7. Mention the *full name* of some person. What is the last or family name called? The given name?
- 8. What is the first letter of a word called?
- 9. Tell two things about an initial letter that is used for the name of a person or place.
- 10. Tell one thing about, -

a bird, a picture of a bird, the word bird.

B. - WRITTEN.

- 1. Write a word that is a name, —
 of a place, of a person, of a thing.
- 2. Write your full name.

- 3. Write the names of the place, State, and country in which you live.*
- 4. Write the initials of your name.
- 5. Copy these words, and use the marks that will show how they should have been written:—

new York

emma

a Box and A cap

EXERCISE 3.1

Pronounce, spell, write, and use correctly, -

- 1. The names of things in the school-room.
- 2. The names of five things seen at home.
- * During this and the succeeding exercise, teach orally, with the aid of the blackboard, the name, meaning, and use of the \bigwedge (cā-ret), the δ (dē-le), and the / (oblique line) to denote errors. W. B. where it need not be erased:—
 - ∧ (cā-ret) something left out.
 - δ (dē-le) strike out or erase.
 - / wrong letter or mark.
 - = use a capital.
 - l. c. use a small letter.
- † This exercise may be divided into several tasks adapted to the power of the class. Exercise 4 and the oral lesson following may be given in connection with the writing of the tasks. If there be time, and if the pupils be old enough to do more work of the same kind, the Tr. may add other similar points; as,—

The names of places in which various animals (as the elephant, seal, and ostrich) live.

The names of flowers which bloom around their homes; in spring, in sumner, in autumn.

The names of things found in the sea.

The names of the leading places in their own State, etc.

Later, statements may be made and written about the things whose names are thus learned.

- 3. The names of things that you wear.
- 4. The names of things seen on your way to school.
- 5. The names of domestic animals.
- 6. Five words that are the names of tools.
- 7. The names of things in which people ride.
- 8. The names of things good to eat.
- 9. A name of, -

a flower, a bird, a mineral, a tree, a vegetable, a fruit, a fish, an insect, a nut, a reptile.

10. The names that you can find in Lesson III. of your Reader.

Exercise 4.

1. Read these words:—

a all an the

2. How should the word a be pronounced? [9]

When the word a is used alone, or when we speak of it, it is called \bar{a} ; thus, I said \bar{a} book, not her book. The word \bar{a} means one.

3. How many books are meant by a book?

When the word α (meaning one) is used before another word, it should be spoken as if it were a part of that word; thus, a cross, as across; a part, as apart.

4. Read for practice: -

arise	along	above	apart	among
a ride	a lawn	a bud	a park	a month
a rule	a lark	a book	a plume	a mine
a race	a lute	a bird	a pencil	a mule

aloud, a loud voice; along, a long journey; around, a round piece; across, a cross dog; afar, a far country; abroad, a broad street.

- 5. Mention one thing that you have seen whose name begins with b, c, d, f, g, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, or w, and speak the word a before its name.
- CAUTION. When you read, do not forget to pronounce a (used to mean one) as if it were the first syllable of the following word.

ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON I., CHAP. II.

Object. — To cultivate perception, memory, reason, generalization, and language.

Point.—To lead pupils to discover what a statement is and how it is made; also to teach them to use and define the words group, states, and statement.*

Appliances. — A few objects and pictures about which the children may be led to form statements; also a photograph of a group of persons.

Matter. — A group of words that states something is called a statement.

METHOD.†

1. Chalk is white.

- 4. A cube has eight corners.
- 2. A box is made of wood.
- 5. The old man has a lame horse.
- George has a map.
 Dogs bark.

Tr. (showing a piece of chalk). Tell me the name of this.—Chn. Chalk.—Tr. What is the color of chalk?—Chn. It is white.—C. D.—Tr. What is white?—Chn. Chalk is white.—S. R.—I. R.—Tr. I will write what you say about the chalk. Who can spell the word chalk?—H. R.—Ch. does so, and Tr. writes the word using a capital without comment. Tr. You may

^{*} In developing a lesson avoid using a term yet to be taught.

[†] See Laws of Questioning, page xvi, and suggestions in reference to obtaining examples from the class, page xxxvii.

spell the word is.—Ch. does so.—Tr. W. B.—Same of the word white.

The Tr. should use a period after a statement, although the reason for this
use of the period has not been taught. Point to the words as the chn. read
them. Drill on the pronunciation and spelling of the words chalk and white.

In a similar manner obtain and W. B. four or five other statements similar to those given above.

Make the giving of the examples an exercise in correct speaking. See that the tones of voice are pure, pleasant, and appropriate; that the inflection and emphasis are proper; that the pronunciation is correct.

Let the chn. read the statements from the board as the Tr. numbers them. Tr. (pointing to various words). To what am I pointing? - Chn. Words. -If chn. do not say so, point to the words one by one, and ask, What is this? and this? and this? or, review the distinction between objects, pictures, and words. Tr. To how many words did I point? - The chn. say that they do not know, - they did not count, etc. - Tr. Did I point to one word only, or to more than one? — Chn. To more than one. — C. D. — Tr. Who can use a word which means more than one, but does not tell exactly how many? - Chn. Some, several, a few. — If there be no answer, Tr. W. B. the words some. several, and few, and lead the class to state what each means. Tr. (referring to the first statement). How many words are there here ? - Chn. Three. - Tr. W. B. (3) at the right. Similarly of each of the others. — Tr. Instead of saying just how many words there are in each, what can you say to show that there are more than one? - Chn. A few, - some, - several. - Tr. con. and accept some for use. — Tr. (pointing). How many words are there here ! — Chn. Some. - Tr. And here? And here? - Tr. (referring to 1). How are these words (pointing to them in succession) written with regard to each other? -- If chn. do not say, "One after the other," "Near together," or its equivalent, the Tr. may write the words of the statement at different places on the board, and by comparison lead chn. to give the answer, or, call several chn. to the front, arrange them in line, and lead the class to say that there are some children, and that they are standing "next to each other,"-- "in a line,"-- "one after the other,"-- or "near together."-Then refer to the board and lead the chn. to state of (1), (2), (3), (4), and (5) that in each there are "some words near together." - Tr. Because there are "some words near together" here, what may we call this ?- (The chn. will probably not say "a group of words," but the basis for the illustration to be used must be clearly laid, in order that when the parallel is stated they may use the term group intelligently.) If any ch. says "a group of words,". test him and the class thoroughly upon their understanding of the meaning of the word group. If there be no answer the Tr. may arrange several chn.

in line and lead the class to state that there are "some children near together." Tr. If they should all have their pictures taken on one card, how would we say that they were taken ? - Chn. In a group. - C. D. - Tr. Why would you say they were taken in a group? - Chn. st. - Question to obtain that there must be more than one in a group, and that they must be near together. Show the photograph. Chn. say that it is a photograph, — that such a photograph is called a "group" because it is a picture of "some people near together." — Tr. If you should see some chn. playing together in the yard, what word could you use in speaking of them to show that there were more than one, and that they were together? — Chn. The word group. — Tr. W. B. group. — Chn. pronounce, spell, and tell the meaning of, group. — Tr. Who can find, on a map, a group of islands? - Chn. do so. - H. R. - Ch. holds the map before the class and points to the group of islands. -Chn. st. that it is a group of islands, and that it may be so called because there are several islands near together. - Tr. con. - Tr. If you call that a group of islands because there are several islands near together, what will you call this (referring to a statement) because there are some words here near together. — Ch. A group of words. — C. D. — Tr. con. — I. R. — S. R. — Tr. Who can read another group of words from the blackboard? - H. R. - Ch. does so. - C. D. that what he read is a group of words, and why. Same of each statement.

Tr. I will write something on the board and you may tell me whether it is a group of words or not. Tr. W. B. "The clock struck twelve." — C. D. that it is a group of words, and why. — Tr. What do you know from reading this group of words? — Ch. That the clock struck twelve. — C. D. — Tr. How do you know from this group of words that the clock struck twelve? — Chn. "It says so," — "It makes us know," — "It tells us" that the clock struck twelve." Refer to the other groups of words, and have the class decide in each case that it is a group of words, and what it "tells" or "says."

Tr. Because the words do not speak, there is a word which means the same as tells or says that it would be better to use. Who can mention a word which means the same as says or tells?—No answer.—Tr. We say that this group of words states that the clock struck twelve,—that this group of words states that the chalk is white, etc. W. B. the new term, and drill on the spelling and pronunciation of it. Have the class say what it means, and use it to tell what each group of words does. Tr. Who can tell me what each group of words states without telling just what each makes you know?—Chn. or Tr. Each group of words states something. Compare with "He told me something." "He gave me something." Tr. (pointing to a statement). Tell me now all that we have said about this.—Chn.

It is a group of words, and it states something. — C. D., Tr. con. — Tr. Who can read another group of words and tell me why it is called a group? --H. R. - Chn. called upon. - Tr. What do you know from reading this group of words? - Tr. What word have you learned to use instead of tells or says? - Chn. The word states. - Tr. Who can read a group of words that states something? Another? Another? Another? How many of these (indicating the statements) are groups of words which state something? - Chn. All of them. - C. D., Tr. con. - Tr. Tell me what each of these is. - Chn. Each of these is a group of words that states something. - Tr. Who knows what name we give to a group of words that states something? - Chn. or Tr. A group of words that states something is called a statement. — I. R., S. R. — Tr. W. B., Chn. read. — Drill on the spelling of the words. - Tr. Who can read a statement from the board? - H. R., Ch. does so. - Tr. How many think that is a statement? - H. R. - Tr. Why would you call that a statement? — Chn. Because it is a group of words, and it states something. - Tr. con. - Same of the other statements. - Chn. copy the matter. Review meaning of group, states, and statement. Erase all.

Application. — Tr. Who can give me a statement to write upon the blackboard? Teach that they must first have something to talk about, and then know something to say about it before they can make a statement.

Show that a group of words is not always a statement, as, "John running in the field," and lead chn. to emphasize the fact that a group of words must state something or it is not a statement.*

CAUTION. — If a child hesitate in giving a statement, do not supply words and hurry his attempt to a conclusion. Ascertain the cause of his hesitation. It may be sluggishness, or because his thought is inexact, or because he has not the necessary words to express a clear and perfectly definite thought.

If his mind act slowly, the habit cannot be overcome in a day. Slight, continued, and gradually increased pressure will lead him to more animation in thought and recitation. If the thought he seeks to put in words be inaccurate or untrue the Tr. should mould the thought, not supply words and shape the statement. Ask him about what he wishes to make a statement; what he was going to say about that, etc., to ascertain if his ideas are clear and truly related. Then, if he need a new word, the word may be given, and he and his classmates may be drilled on the pronunciation, spelling, meaning, and use of the word.

^{*} See subjects for conversational lessons, Appendix to Teacher's Edition, page 275.

CHAPTER IL

THE STATEMENT.

LESSON I.

WHAT THE STATEMENT IS.

Preceded by oral lessons indicated in Teacher's Edition.

- 1. Name an object in the room, and say something about it; as, The clock ticks.
- 2. Tell me something about, —

a mouse, leaves, a tree, a horse.

To state means to say or to tell.

3. State something about, —

the sky, your hat, the windows, an axe.

Development Questions.—(a.) When we state anything, what do we use? (b.) How many words do we use? (c.) What may we call several words spoken or written together, or one after the other?

We speak of several children playing together as a group of children.

Islands near together in the sea are called a group of islands.

Words spoken or written one after the other may be called a group of words.

- 4. What is a statement?
- I. A group of words that states something is a statement.

5. Make a statement about, —

a bird, chalk, your pencil, water.

Exercise 1.—(Oral.)

To make a statement, one must have something to talk about, and know something to say about it.

Before you begin to speak, think just what you will say, and try to say it in the best way.

Make a statement about, -

the sun, an egg, apples, a cow, the blackboard, flowers, snow, grass, a city, a person.

EXERCISE 2.

A group of words that does not state anything is not a statement; thus, Were you ill? squirrels running; the girl in the field.

Read these groups of words, and copy every group that is a statement:—

- 1. The walls are made of stone.
- 2. Beasts, birds, and fishes.
- 3. Washington is the capital of the United States.
- 4. Large books in the window.
- 5. Did you come late?
- 6. Alice has a slate.
- 7. A word that is a name.
- 8. My sled is painted green.
- 9. Roses grow in the garden.
- 10. Are always happy.

Draw a line under the words in the statements that are names. Tell of what each is the name.

ORAL EXERCISE TO PRECEDE LESSON II., CHAP. II.

Plan. - W. B. a few statements similar to the following:

the horse ran away an orange is on your table a lemon is sour the man wears a hat that chalk is green.

Tr. Here are five statements: you may read the third one. — C. D. that it is hard to know where to begin. - Tr. Why? - Chn. They are written so close together, - they are not separated, etc. - Tr. Read the first statement: you can see where that begins. What is the trouble now ?-- Chn. We cannot tell the first time we read it just where to stop. — C. D. — Tr. What can we place after each statement to show where it ends ! - Ch. or Tr. A period. - Read the statements with the class, and place a period after each statement. — The chn. now read the five statements. — C. D. that the period is so small that one who reads in a hurry might not see it. Tr. What can we do to show where each statement begins? — Ch. or Tr. Use a capital letter as the initial of the first word. — Tr. (beginning to make capitals). There is not room to make them. What can we do ? - Chn. Write the statements again, and leave more space between them. — Tr. does so. — C. D. that what is written on the board looks better, and is more easily read. — Tr. You may read the second statement. — Ch. does so. — C. D. Similarly of the fourth. Refer to the statements as first written, and lead the chn. to say that they could not read the second or fourth of those statements so promptly because the statements are not separated, and because there is nothing to show where each begins and ends. Have them examine several statements in their Readers, and observe that each begins with a capital, has a period after it, and is separated from the next by a little space. — Obtain and W. B. II. Lesson II. Drill. Have the class copy II. from the board, and write two or three statements dictated by the Tr.

LESSON II.

ABOUT WRITING A STATEMENT.

Development Questions. — 1. Take your Reader: find two short statements on one page.

2. Look at the mark of punctuation at the close of each statement. Look at the first letter of each statement.

- 3. With what kind of a letter does each statement begin? What mark is placed after each statement?
 - 4. How should a statement be written?

II. The first letter of a statement should be a capital. A period should be placed at the close of a statement.

Exercise 1.*

- 1. Copy two short statements from your Reader.
- 2. Write a statement about a person.
- 3. Write a statement about a place.
- 4. Write a statement about a thing.
- 5. Write the initials of these names: George Washington, Mary Ann Leonard, New Mexico, New Brunswick.

Look over your work and be sure,-

- (a) That each group of words is a statement.
- (b) That you have used a capital wherever one was needed,
- (c) That you have placed a period wherever one should have been used,
- (d) That no words are misspelled,
- (e) That you have not used a capital or period where none was needed.

Slates exchanged.

^{*} In this and similar exercises, question a few of the chn. to know about whom, or what place, or what thing they will make statements, and what they are going to say about them. Insist that what they say shall be true, and interesting, and pleasant. Encourage them to find out something new to tell about the things of which they write. When statements are well expressed, and contain facts worth stating, or facts which show that the child has been observing for himself, it produces a good effect to have the statements written on the board, or even taken home by the child to show to his parents.

Exercise 2.

- This is called a dash. A dash is sometimes used to show that words are left out. The is read "blank."
- Read and copy this exercise, using a name of a person or place wherever there is a ——:—
 - (a) is a large city.
 - (b) —— is the queen of ——.
 - (c) Our country is called the
 - (d) —— sits near me in school.
 - (e) —— is the capital of ——.
- 2. Read from your slate a group of words that is a statement.
- 3. Copy I. and II., Chapter II.
- Read from your slate a word that begins with a capital, and tell why the capital was used.
- 5. Write your name, as plainly as you can.

A name is written plainly when every letter in it would be known if looked at by itself.

Exercise 3. — (Oral.)*

Always choose words for your statements that are pleasant to hear and will tell just what you mean. Speak every word distinctly and correctly.

Make a statement about a

flower, mineral, tree, vegetable, person, fruit, fish, insect, nut, place.

^{*} Plan. — Tr. All the children in this line may be ready to name a flower, and tell something about it; in the next line the chn. may name a fruit, and make a statement about it, etc.

When all are ready, — Tr. We cannot write all the statements made about the flowers. We will write only one. You may listen as each child gives his statement about some flower, and we will write the one which the class like best. Hear the statements made about flowers. C. D. whose they like best. The child who gave it is asked to repeat it, and all write the same. Similarly of the fruits, vegetables, etc. If the class err in their judgment, the Tr. may ask the ch. who gave the best statement to repeat his also. Compare the two and tell the class why you like this better than the one chosen. Same of statements about fruits, etc. The chn. may need to be aided in naming minerals and insects.

If a child give a clumsy statement, ascertain whether its form is due to an error of thought or an error of speech, and correct it accordingly.

Exercise 4. — (Blackboard.)

See Teacher's Edition.

Plan. — 1. Tr. Each of you look at some object and be ready to make a statement about it.

- 2. Send one child to the board to write his statement. Question class as to whether it is or is not a statement; what a statement is; what a group of words is; what states means; how a statement should be written.
- 3. Tr. About what object did Alfred make a statement ? Ch. About the chalk box. -. C. D. - Tr. How do you know ? -- Ch. From the statement. --Tr. What in the statement shows that the statement is made about the chalk box? — Ch. The words The chalk box. — C. D. — Tr. con. — Tr. Alfred, you may draw a line under the words which show about what your statement is made. - Ch. underscores The chalk box. - Tr. The class may read the words under which he has drawn a line. — Tr. What are these words in the statement for ?- Ch. To show about what the statement is made. - Tr. What did Alfred state about the chalk box? - Chn. That it is empty. - C. D. - Tr. Was that what you stated about the chalk box, Alfred ? — Ch. confirms. — Tr. (to the class). How did you know that ? — Ch. From the words is empty. — Tr. What do the words is empty show? Ch. The words is empty show what is stated about the chalk box. — C. D. — Tr. con. — I. R., S. R. — Review what The chalk box shows. Lead chn. to state what is empty shows. Same of a few other statements. - Erase. W. B. the first part of each statement erased; require the class to copy and to supply the second part of each, and draw lines to show which is the first part and which the second.

EXERCISE 5.

- 1. Write five statements.
- 2. Draw one line under the words in each statement that show about what the statement is made.
- 3. Draw two lines under the words which show what is stated in each statement.

Example: A little bluebird sat in the tree.

LESSON III.

THE WORD I.

Development Questions. — 1. Make a statement about yourself.

- 2. What word shows that you are stating something about yourself? Write that word on the blackboard.
- 3. Use your name in the statement instead of the word I. Do we use our names in speaking of ourselves?
- 4. What word would you use, instead of your name, to show that a statement is made about yourself?

III. The word I, used instead of the name of a person, should be a capital letter.

Exercise 1.

Use the word I instead of your name, and tell, in five short statements,—

- (a) One thing that you saw this morning,
- (b) One thing that you did Saturday,
- (c) One thing that you like,

- (d) One thing that you see every day,
- (e) Where you went yesterday.

Write the five statements.

CAUTION. — In making a statement about yourself and some one else, mention yourself last; thus, Frank and I will go, — not, I and Frank will go.

EXERCISE 2.

- 1. Write a statement about,
 - (a) Yourself and a playmate,
 - (b) Something in your desk,
 - (c) A place that you have seen,
 - (d) A person of whom you have read,
 - (e) Something found in the sea.
- 2. In each statement, draw a line under the words which show about what the statement is made.
- 3. Draw two lines under the words which show what is stated in each statement.
- Make a list of the words that are names in your statements.
- 5. Write the word used instead of your name.

Exercise 3.—(Oral.)

A PICTURE LESSON.*

For plan of conducting, see Teacher's Edition.

Plan. — 1. Ask a child to find a picture in his Reader which he likes. Direct the class to turn to that.

2. Tr. Who can tell me the name of something that he sees in the picture?

H. R. — Obtain the names of all the things to be found in the picture.

^{*} For subjects and general plan for picture lessons, see Appendix to Teacher's Edition, page 269.

W. B, a few only of the names. Select such as are not too difficult to spell, are in daily use, and should be familiar to children. Lead the chn. to say that they are words, that they are names, that they are the names of things seen in the picture. Distinguish between objects and their pictures.

Urge the class, even after everything has been found, to find something else. Commend especially the finding of something which others have not seen. This will lead them to observe closely.

- 3. Tell the chn. that they may talk about the things they see in the picture as if they were real.
- Tr. Who can tell me something about the house, so that I might know, if I had not seen the picture, just how it looks?—H. R.—Chn. The house is large. The house is made of stone. The house stands back in the yard. The house is under the trees, etc. Accept only full statements. Select and W. B. (the chn. dictating capitals, spelling, and periods) the most simple, correct, and vivid statements. If an incorrect statement be given; as, "The horses is hitched to the fence,"—Tr. Who can tell me that in a different way? in a better way?—Chn. do so.—Tr. Yes, it is better to say, "The horses are hitched to the fence." Require the ch. who made the mistake to give the statement in the correct form. When he corrects it, W. B. In reading the statements from the board, do not neglect to pause at such, and have the correct form impressed.
- 4. Statements read from the board. Review: statement, group, states, and how a statement should be written. Have the class tell what word or words in each show about what the statement is made, and what word or words show what is stated. Have them mention the names in the statements.
- 5. Erase all. Close books or remove picture. Oral review of what they saw in the picture, and a description of the things seen.

EXERCISE 4.*

- Write the names of the things seen in the picture about which you had a lesson.
- 2. Write five statements about things seen in the picture.

^{*} Tr. Turn to the picture about which we had a lesson yesterday. Do you see that the words on the page do not come to the edges of the leaf?—What do we call the blank space on the side of what is printed on a page? —Whow many margins are there on this page?—How wide are the margins at the sides?—In writing your exercise leave a margin at each side as straight and wide as the margins in your book.

- 3. In each statement, draw one line under the words which show about what the statement is made.
- 4. Draw two lines under the words which show what is stated in each statement.
- 5. Write your name and the names of the place and State in which you live.
- 6. See,
 - (a) That every statement begins with a capital and ends with a period,
 - (b) That every word is spelled correctly,
 - (c) That no capital or period has been used where none was needed.

Slates Exchanged.*

LESSON IV.

ABOUT MARGINS AND MARKS, †

Preceded by oral instruction and practice.

What is a margin?

The space left on any side of what is printed or written on a page is called a margin.

- 1. When you write an exercise, leave a margin on each side as straight and wide as the margins in your book.
- 2. When you have an exercise to correct, if a mistake be found in the first half of a line, place the correction in the left margin. If a mistake be found in the latter half of a line, the correction should be placed in the right margin.

Read A and B, page [4].

^{*} Teach orally 2 and 3 of the succeeding lesson.

[†] For study and reference. See notes, pages [1] and [3],

C. This A is called a caret. The caret is used to show that a letter, or word, or mark, has been omitted: thus.

Thopson; HB. Finch; a very boy. m/./

tall/

Pronounce, spell, write, and use correctly, cāret. carrot. carats.

D. This / drawn through a letter shows that it is wrong; thus, wagen; and; Amerika.

E. The word dele [de-le] means strike out or erase. When a letter, or word, or mark, that is not needed, has been used, draw a line through it and write in the margin the letter δ (the initial of the word dele); thus, waggon; stopre; δ/δ Albert; Finch; a glass glass box.*

3. Draw a short oblique line after every correction made in the margin. Place the marks of correction in the order in which the mistakes occur.

Exercise. — (Review.)

For plan of conducting, see Teacher's Edition.

I. Oral.

- 1. Mention a word that is the name of an object.
- 2. Mention an object of which you have seen a picture.
- 3. Mention a word that is the name, (a) of a person, (b) of a place, (c) of a thing.
- 4. Tell what is meant by, -

^{*} The word dele is a Roman or Latin word. The letter & is the Greek d. If we should use the Roman d in the margin, one could not tell whether the letter marked was to be struck out or changed to a d.

the full name, a group of words, the surname, a margin, the Christian name, a person, a caret. a dash, dē-le.

- 5. Tell three uses of a period.
- 6. Tell four uses of a capital letter.
- 7. Tr. W. B. A . Tell the name of each of these marks.
- 8. Tr. W. B. \equiv 1. c. / δ \wedge . Tell the use of each of these marks.
 - 9. Pronounce, spell, and use in a correct statement, caret, carrot, carats.
 - 10. Read correctly (from the blackboard), -

a gun, a mound, a cross, a round block.

II. Written.*

Tr. dictate, or W. B., the following: -

- 1. Write your full name. Write your initials.
- 2. Write a statement about, -
 - (a) yourself,
 - (b) one thing that you wear,
 - (c) a place whose name is made up of two words,
 - (d) a person of whom you have read,
 - (e) a domestic animal.
- 3. Draw one line under the word or words in each statement which show about what the statement is made.
- 4. Draw two lines under the words in each statement which show what is stated.
 - 5. Copy these marks and write the name of each : -

Λ · — δ

^{*} The exercise should be written on paper. If the chn. cannot keep straight margins, allow them to rule them.

LESSON V.

IS AND ARE; WAS AND WERE; HAS AND HAVE.

IS AND ARE.

Sarah is going.

Rachel is going.

Sarah and Rachel are going.

Albany is in New York.

Syracuse is in New York.

Albany and Syracuse are in New York.

The book is on my desk.

Our table is made of wood.

The books are on my desk.

Tables are made of wood.

Development Exercise. — 1. Read one of the above statements and tell about what it is made. 2. Tell whether it is made about one or more than one person, or place, or thing. 3. Copy the statements that are made about one person, or place, or thing. 4. Read them from your slate; tell whether the word is or the word are is used in each of them.

When may we use the word is?

IV. When we make a statement about one person, or place, or thing, we may use is.

5. Read the statements in which the word are is used, and tell of how many persons, or places, or things each statement is made.

When should we use the word are?

V. When we make a statement about more than one person, or place, or thing, we should use are.

- 6. Make a statement in which you use the word is, and tell of what the statement is made.
 - 7. Change the statement so that it will be correct to use the word are.

Exercise 1. — (Oral.)

Fill the blanks in this exercise with is or are:—

- 1. Gold $\stackrel{\cancel{N^2}}{---}$ heavy and yellow.
- 2. Those apples ripe.
- 3. The boy whistling a tune.
- 4. Birds —— singing in the trees.5. London and Paris —— large cities.

- 6. Mary and I going to school.
 7. Julia and Emily older than Jane.
- 8. That pencil ____ made of wood and lead.
- 9. This pane of glass broken.
- 10. We —— ready to write.

EXERCISE 2.

- 1. Write two statements in which you use the word is.
- 2. Write three statements in which you use the word are.
- 3. Write a statement about yourself.
- 4. Write your name, and the name of the place, and the name of the State in which you live.
- 5. Write the initials of the name of your country.

Slates exchanged.

WAS AND WERE.

1. Read these statements: tell about what each of them is made, and whether was or were is used:-

The apple was ripe. Julia was older than Jane. The apples were ripe. Emily was older than Jane.

Julia and Emily were older than Jane.

- 2. Tell whether each statement is made about one or more than one person or thing.
- 3. Tell whether was or were is used in the statements made about more than one.

- 4. When may we use the word was?
 - VI. When we make a statement about one person, or place, or thing, we may use the word was.
- 5. When should we use were?
- VII. When we make a statement about more than one person, or place, or thing, we should use were.

Exercise 3. — (Oral.)

- 1. Fill the blanks in Exercise 1 with was or were.
- 2. Tell why you use was or were in each case.
- 3. Copy V. and VI., Lesson V.

EXERCISE 4.

- 1. Write.—
 - (a) two statements in which you use the word is,
 - (b) two statements in which you use the word are,
 - (c) two statements in which you use the word was,
 - (d) two statements in which you use the word were.
- 2. In each statement, draw a line under the word, or words, which show about what the statement is made.
- 3. In each statement, draw two lines under the word, or words, which show what is stated.

Oral criticism.

HAS AND HAVE.

1. Read these statements:—

My knife has a handle. Kniy

Knives have handles.

Jessie has been to school. Maurice has been to school.

Jessie and Maurice have been to school.

Portland has a fine harbor. New York has a fine harbor.

Portland and New York have fine harbors.

- 2. Tell about what each statement is made; tell whether it states about one or more than one person, place, or thing.
- 3. Tell whether has or have is used to state of more than one.
- 4. When may we use the word has?
- VIII. When we make a statement about one person, or place, or thing, we may use has.
- 5. When should we use have?
- IX. When we make a statement about more than one person, or place, or thing, we should use have.
- 6. Make a statement in which you use the word have; tell why you would not use has in that statement.

EXERCISE 5.

- 1. Write three statements in which you use the word have.
- 2. Write two statements in which you use the word has.
- 3. Draw a line under the word, or words, which show about what each statement is made.
- 4. Copy VIII. and IX., Lesson V.*

Exercise 6.

Use is or are; was or were; has or have; to make correct statements about, —

1. An old man -.

- ▶ 5. The wheel ﷺ
- 2. Many beautiful flowers
- 6. My friend and I
- 3. A boy and a dog
- 7. Coal —.
- 4. Several books
- 8. A carriage ----

Exercise 7.

1. Fill the blanks with words which show who or what, -

^{*} Teach orally, with practice, Caution, page 51 [25].

- (a) —— are very tall.
- is found in the sea. (b)
- (c) were made of wood.
- (d) was seen in the sky.
- (e) have been found.
- (q) has been were in bloom. — has been absent.
- (h) is the capital of the United States.
- (i) are looking for shells.
- (j) were standing by the window.
- 2. Read the statements that are made about one person, or place, or thing.
- 3. What words do we use to state about one person, or place, or thing?
- X. Is, was, and has state of but one person, or place, or thing.
- 4. Of what do are, were, and have state?
- XI. Are, were, and have state of more than one person, or place, or thing.*
- 5. Draw a line under every word that is a name in your statements.
- 6. Mention any word which you have used instead of a name.

EXERCISE 8.

Pronounce and use correctly:—

of,	can,	since,	and,	apron,
for,	get,	just,	have,	iron,
far,	was,	again,	where,	only,
from,	has,	often,	pretty,	water.

^{*} See Caution, page 51 [25].

CHAPTER III.

THE TWO PARTS OF A STATEMENT.

LESSON I.

Boys | play ball. An owl | hoots. Carlo and Fido | are old friends. A large green book | was in the window.

- 1. Tell about what each of the above statements is made.
- Tell what is stated about, —
 boys, an owl, Carlo and Fido, a large green book.
- 3. Of how many parts is every statement made up?
 - I. Every statement is made up of two parts.
- 4. What is the first part of a statement?
 - II. The word or words which show about what the statement is made are the first part of a statement.

What is the second part of a statement?

III. The word or words which show what is stated are the second part of a statement.

EXERCISE 1.

1. Write five statements and draw a short vertical line between the two parts of each statement.

EXAMPLES. - Margaret | made a picture.

The butterfly and the bees | were in the garden.

2. Copy I., II., and III.

Exercise 2.—(Oral and Blackboard.)

- 1. Use is, or was, or has, in a statement about,—
 a boy, a baby, a lady, a sponge, your class.
- 2. Use are, or were, or have, in a statement about, .

 trees, some sailors, Brooklyn and Liverpool, sponges, your class, flies, wasps, and bees.
- 3. Write those statements, and draw a short vertical line between the first and second parts of each statement.

PLAN FOR ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON II., CHAP. III.

- 1. Obtain and W. B. the names of several unlike objects. Have the chn. read the words; lead them to say that the words are the names of things, that the things are objects.
- 2. Lead them to say that there are more objects in the place in which they live than they can count, that in the State there are a great many more, and that all of these objects have names. Tr. Why are objects named? Ch. So that we can tell them apart. C. D. Tr. What do you think about our being able to tell a globe and a hat apart if they did not have names? C. D. that we could, that they did not mean that, that they meant "so that we could speak of them and others would know which we meant." Tr. con. Lead different chn. to tell why objects are named.
- 3. Have one ch. speak the name of an object in the room, and another show which object he means. Repeat with several objects and different children. Tr. What do we do with the names of objects so that others may know which object is meant? Chn. We speak them. C. D. Tr. con. Tr. Who can tell something else that we do with the names of objects to show others what objects we mean? Chn. We write them. C. D. —

Tr. con. — If the children do not suggest this, the Tr. should refer to the names on the board, and have the class show the objects meant by these names. They will then state that we speak or write a name so that others may know which object we mean. — Tr. Instead of saying that we speak and write the words, you may say that we use them. — Tr. What do we do with the names of objects so that others may know which object we mean? — Chn. Use them. — Tr. What do you mean by saying that you "use" a word? — Chn. When we speak or write a word, we use it. — C. D. — Tr. con. — I. R. and S. R.

- 4. Tr. Name an object that can fly. Name a bird that all of us have seen. C. D. that all have seen a canary. Obtain and W. B. (chn. dictating spelling, capitals, and periods) three or four statements similar to the following: A canary flies. A canary eats seed. A canary is yellow. A canary sings.
- 5. Have the statements read. Lead the chn. to say that they are statements, and why; that all of the statements are made about a canary,—that the word canary is the name of what was talked about, and what is written about in each statement.—Tr. You may draw a line under the word in this statement that is the name of the object about which the statement is made.—Ch. does so.—C. D.—Tr. con.—Same of each of the other statements.
- 6. Have the statements read again. Obtain that all of the statements are made about a canary, and that the name canary is used in every statement. Lead them to say that, if they were talking about a canary, they would not repeat the name so often, that they would use the name the first time they spoke of the canary, and afterward would use the word it instead of the name. Erase the subject of every sentence but the first, and, as chn. dictate, W. B. the word it as the first part of each statement.* Chn. read the statements and C. D. that they sound better. Tr. con. Lead them to say that the word it is used instead of a name, that it is used in the first part of a statement to show about what the statement is made. In application of this obtain and examine a few more statements; such as, The pencil is long. It is sharp. It is made of slate.
- 7. Obtain the necessary examples, and dispose in the same way of he, she, and they.
 - 8. W. B. where they may remain for a day or two, the words it, he, they,

[•] Do not divert attention from the main point by teaching them to combine the statements. This may be more easily taught (Chapter V.) when the class are prepared to learn the use of the comma and and.

she. Lead the chn. to say that these are words which may be used instead of names in the first part of a statement, to show about what the statement is made. In a future lesson add to the list the words I, you, and we. Have the list learned with a statement as to the use of the words. When pupils say, "Him and I," or "Frank and me, are going," refer to what they have been taught, and have them select the right word to use instead of him or me to show about what a statement is made.

Exercise 4, page 53. - W. B. for the class to correct :-

- 1. Frank and me were late.*
- 2. I and Frank were late.
- 3. Him and I were late.
- 4. You was late.
- 5. Her and me went.

LESSON II.

Preceded by oral lesson indicated in Teacher's Edition.

- · (a) Baltimore | is in Maryland. (b) It | is a large city.
 - (a) John | is a tall boy.
 - (b) He | is taller than Alfred.
 - (a) Trees | have roots, trunks, leaves, and branches.
 - (b) They | need moisture and sunshine.
 - (a) Julia Howe | sits by me.
 - (b) She | is writing.
- (b) She | has a large slate.

Development Questions.—1. Read the first part of each statement. 2. What does the first part of a statement show? 3. How many words may be used in the first part of a statement? 4. Give an example of a statement that has several words in its first part. 5. Read the statements marked (a);

^{*} The only reason to be exacted of the children is a sufficient one; namely, that *I*, he, and she, (and not me, him, and her) are the correct words to use instead of names to show about what a statement is made.

If there be other errors, similar to these, common in the locality, as "we uns," "you all," and the like, add statements employing those, and give similar non-technical reasons for avoiding them.

tell of how many words the first part of each is composed; tell what kind of words Baltimore, John, trees, and Julia Howe are. 6. Read the statements marked (b), and tell how many words are in the first part of each. Tell what the words it, he, they, and she mean in those statements, and instead of what each is used. 7. Make a statement that has, (a) one word for its first part; (b) two or more words for its first part; (c) neither a name nor a word used instead of a name in its first part.

Since the first part of a statement shows about what the statement is made, the name of what is talked about, or a word used instead of its name, must be in the first part of every statement.

- IV. The first part of a statement may be one word or more than one; as, Trees | have leaves in summer. The evergreen trees | have leaves throughout the year.
- V. A name, or a word used instead of a name, may be the first part of a statement.

Exercise 1.—(Oral.)

- 1. Instead of what names are the words I and you used?
- CAUTION. In making a statement about yourself, use have instead of has with the word I. Use are, were, and have with the word you, whether it mean one or more than one.
- 2. Use each of these words as the first part of a statement:—

 I, it, we, he, they, she, you.
- 3. Tell instead of what name each was used.
- 4. Which of them would you use instead of the name in speaking of,
 - a man, yourself, a slate, soldiers, a woman, some trees, yourself and friends.

EXERCISE 2.

The first time that you mention an object, you should use the name; afterwards, you may use another word instead of the name; thus,—

> The birds are building their nests. They have been busy all day. They use straw and threads and moss.

- 1. Write two statements about a farmer.
- 2. Write three statements about one place.
- 3. Write two statements about one thing.
- 4. Write a statement about yourself.
- 5. Write two statements about a seamstress.

Exercise 3. — (Oral.)

Fill the blanks, in the following, with words that will make correct statements of them:

The is in bloom.	I saw on the street.
is a beautiful flower.	were talking.
— is very fragrant.	were laughing.
William came last night.	were going to dinner.
is my brother.	Amelia has gone to London
is my brother. is in the army.	— has been very ill.
brought his sword	- will travel this year.
home.	writes home often.
Our class is large.	You can play with me.
study our lessons.	need not go.
play at recess.	—— may use my slate.

Write a list of the words that we may use instead of names to show about what a statement is made.

Exercise 4. — (Oral.)

See Teacher's Edition, page 50.

EXERCISE 5.

Write a statement in which you use correctly, -

is, was, has, I, caret, have, were, are, eye, carrot.

REVIEW AND SUMMARY.

I. ORAL.

1. Mention the nam	e of,—	
a thing,	a place,	a person.
•	learned about the	e first letter of a word place?

- 3. Of what is the full name of a person made up?
 4. What is the first letter of a word called?
- 5. Tell two things that you have learned about writing the initial letter of the name of a person or place.

≣ 1. c. δ ∧ — . /

- 8. What is a margin?
- 9. What is a statement? How should a statement be written?
- 10. Tell how many parts every statement has. What does each part show?

- 11. What word shows that the speaker is stating something about himself? How should it be written?
- 12. When may we use is, was, or has? When may we use are, were, or have?

THINGS TO REMEMBER.

- I. A word may be the name of, 2. a place, 3. a thing.
- II. A word may be used instead of a name.
- III. A capital should be used for, -
 - 1. The first letter of a word that is the name of a person or place,
 - 2. An initial used for the name of a person or place,
 - 3. The word I used instead of a name,
 - 4. The first letter of a statement.

IV. A period should be placed after, -

- 1. A statement,
- 2., A name standing alone,
- 3. An initial used for a name.

II. WRITTEN.

Write a statement, -

- 1. In which you use the word I and the name of a place.
- 2. That is made up of two words.
- 3. In which you use the full name of a person.
- 4. In which a word used instead of a name is the first part of the statement.
- 5. In which you state something about more than one person, or place, or thing.

CHAPTER IV.

MORE TO LEARN ABOUT NAMES.

LESSON I.

NAMES OF MATERIALS.

- 1. Name an object in the room, and tell of what it is made.

 Name any other object made of the same.
- 2. Tell of what these things are made:
 - a bottle, shoes, a house, a stove, the door, a pencil, buttons, a knife, a lock, the ceiling, hats, jewelry, money, windows, dresses.

That of which anything is made is called its material.

- 3. Look around the room and mention the different materials that you see.
- A word may be the name of a material; as, wood, glass, paper.

HOME TASK.

Make as long a list as you can of names of materials that you see at home.

Learn to pronounce, spell, write, and use correctly, the names of all the materials that you can see in a shop, in a store, at home, at school, on your way to school, or wherever you go.

Exercise 1.

Write the names of the materials of which these things are made:—

combs, houses, inkstands, clothing, clocks, dolls, dishes, money, furniture, jewelry.

EXERCISE 2.

1. Mention something that is made of, —

gold,	wood,	straw,	steel,	marble,
silver,	leather,	china,	bone,	slate,
paper,	iron,	glass,	shell,	wool,
cloth,	brass,	tin,	pearl,	cotton.

2. Of what are these words the names? Copy I., Chapter IV.

EXERCISE 3.

- 1. Learn to pronounce, spell, and write the words in Exercise 2.
- 2. Use each of these names of materials in a correct statement:—

paper, leather, wood, glass, steel.*

- 3. Make three statements about (a) silver, (b) iron, (c) wool.†
- 4. What is a material?

^{*} To avoid such statements as He has a steel pen, The glass jar is broken, and others in which the words are used as adjectives and not as names, ask the chn. to tell something about paper, leather, etc. Or, require that each name of a material be used as the first part of a statement.

[†] See Exercise 2, page 52 [26].

LESSON II.

NAMES OF PARTS.

See Teacher's Edition.*

1. Name the parts of, —

a chair, your hand, a shoe, an apple, a house, a hat, a knife, a wheel, a plant, a book.†

PLAN FOR AN ORAL LESSON ON THE PARTS OF AN OBJECT.

A WHEEL.

Names of Parts. \begin{cases} \text{hub,} & \text{tire,} \\ \text{spokes,} & \text{bolts,} \\ \text{felly,} & \text{box.} \end{cases}

Plan. — 1. Show the class a wheel of a baby's carriage, or of a little wagon. Chn. name it, and spell the word wheel. W. B. A wheel, as above.

2. Question the chn. to lead them to say that it is just like the wheel of a large carriage or wagon, except that it is smaller; that it is made of wood and iron; that the words wood and iron are names of materials.

Tr. Who can find some wood in the wheel?—H. R.—Ch. holds the wheel before the class and points to some wood.—How many see to what he is pointing?—H. R.—Tr. (indicating all of that part). Of what is this made?—Chn. Of wood.—Tr. What is this that is made of wood?—Chn. The hub of the wheel.—Tr. How many know that this is called the hub of

^{*} Assign the study of but one object to each member or section of the class. As a rule, the object, or a picture of it, should be before the class when its parts are named. When this is not possible, as in the case of a house, the chn. may name such parts as all of the class would recognize, and learn to spell those names. The next day the class may mention and describe the parts omitted, and learn to spell the additional names of parts.

[†] For the names of the parts of these and other objects, see Appendix to Teacher's Edition, page 265.

the wheel? - H. R. - Tr. Who can spell the word hub? - Chn. sp. and Tr. W. B. - Chn. read, and show the hub of the wheel. - Tr. Who can find more wood in the wheel than this of which the hub is made? — Ch. finds and names a spoke, - another spoke, - another, and so on. - Tr. If we call one of these a spoke, what do you think we may call all of them ?-- Chn. Spokes. — Tr. con. — Tr. Who can spell the word spokes? — H. R. — Ch. does so. - Tr. W. B. - Chn. read the words hub and spokes and say of what they are the names. — Tr. What is a hub? — Chn. A hub is a part of a wheel. C. D. — Tr. con. — Tr. What are spokes? — Chn. Spokes are parts of a wheel. - C. D. - Tr. con. - Tr. Of what are those parts of a wheel made ? -Chn. Of wood. - Tr. Who can find some other part of the wheel that is made of wood? — If the chn. do not find the felly (or felloe), ask who can find a part of the wheel that is made of iron, and proceed as before. After they have found the tire, their attention may be called to the wood inside the tire. Obtain or give term felly and W. B. The chn. will find the nails which hold on the tire. Recur to what they said about the size of a buggy or wagon wheel as compared with this, and by reference to the greater weight which that must support, and the greater thickness of the tire, develop the idea of the necessity for much larger nails. Teach that they are called bolts, and W. B. the name. Have the chn. tell of what the bolts are made, and where on a wheel they would look for them. If there is no box in the small wheel shown the class, omit that part until to-morrow. Tr. Who can find some other part of this wheel ? - Chn. cannot.

3. Tr. (pointing to the board for the class to read). About what have we had a lesson to-day?—Chn. A wheel.—Tr. What parts do we find that a wheel has?—Chn. read their names.—Tr. Of what do these words make you think?—Why?—Chn. Because they are the names of the parts.—Tr. How many of these words are the names of the parts of a wheel?—Chn. All of them.—C. D.—Tr. Yes, these words are all names of the parts of a wheel, and, to show that, I will draw a brace before them so,—and write Names of Parts before the brace, so.—Chn. read all.—Tr. erase.

SUMMARY.—1. Have one ch. take the wheel, and show and name the parts made of wood; another point out and name the parts made of iron. C. D. in each case.

2. Point to each part while the chn. give its name, and sp. the word to be W. B. Lead them to state that the words on the board are names of parts, and to tell how the Tr. may show that. Tr. What has for its parts a hub, a tire, etc.?—Chn. A wheel.—Chn. sp. the word wheel, and Tr. W. B. A wheel, as before.—Chn. copy all from the board.

- 2. Name the principal parts of the human body.
- 3. Name one part of each of these animals which the others have not:—

a fish, an elephant, a child, a horse, a bird, a sheep, a cat, a cow.

II. A word may be the name of a part of an object; as, stem, blade, hub, wing, arm.

HOME TASK.

Learn ten words that are names of parts of objects that you see at home, in the shops, or on the way to school.

Exercise 1.

Pronounce, spell, write, and use correctly the new names which you have learned for parts of things.*

Learn to pronounce and spell the correct names of the parts of the objects which you see from day to day.

EXERCISE 2.

- 1. Write a statement about, -
 - (a) a person,
- (b) a place.
- (c) a thing,

- (d) a material,
- (e) a part of an object.
- 2. Draw a short line between the two parts of each statement.
- 3. Draw a line under the words that are names in your statements.

Exercise 3.—(Oral.)

1. Tell of what each of these words is the name: -

Ellen, California, linen, carriage, root.

^{*} See note, Teacher's Edition, page 60.

2. Pronounce, spell, write at dictation, and use correctly in a statement, each of these names of parts:—

claws,	sole,	fleece,	trunk,	antlers,
peel,	flesh,	fur,	gills,	plumage,
wrist,	gable,	feelers,	scale,	foliage.

EXERCISE 4.

- 1. Write five words that are the names of parts of things in the school-room, and write the names of the materials of which those parts are made.
- 2. Write the name of a person and the name of the place in which he lives.
- 3. Write three words that are the names of things.
- 4. Copy:

- 5. Mention the names in the following: -
 - (a) John broke the blade of his knife.
 - (b) The knife was made at Sheffield, but the steel was poor.

As you mention each name, tell whether it is the name of a person, a place, a thing, a material, or a part.

NOTE. — The reproduction of a lesson on the names of the parts of an object may be conducted in many ways:—

^{1.} The Tr. may dictate the names of the parts. — This is a test of the spelling only.

^{2.} The object being placed before the class, the chn. may be required to

write the names of its parts. This is a test of the correct use of the names, as well as of the correct spelling of them.

- .3. The object being absent, the chn. may be required to write from memory the names of its parts. This is a test of the power to reproduce a complete image of the object, to use the names of its parts properly, and to spell the names correctly.
- 4. The chn. may be asked, as a class, to think just how the object looks. One ch. may be sent to the board to write the names of its parts. The others observe his work. He may be interrupted at any point, and another ch. sent to continue the work. C. D. when all names of parts are written. If any be omitted, produce the object and have the part found, or require the class to look at the object out of school and see if they can find a part whose name is not upon the board. Criticism of spelling, arrangement, legibility, etc.

This plan, like the others, tests the spelling, the correct use of the names, the power to reproduce a complete image of an object, and also shows the advantage of observing some order or system in naming the parts.

No plan should be used to the exclusion of the others.

PLAN FOR ORAL EXERCISE TO PRECEDE LESSON III., CHAP. IV.

- 1. Lead the class to say that a stranger coming in to talk to them would call them boys or girls, or children, that he would call them so because they are boys and girls, or children, and because he would not know their names, that he would call the children in any other school the same for the same reason; that if he spoke to all of them as pupils, he would speak to one as "this pupil," or "that pupil"; that if he called them all children, he would mention one of them as a child. Have the class sp. the word child. W. B. Same of pupil, boy, girl, etc.
- 2. Lead the class to say that the words of the list are names. Tr. Of whom is the word child the name? C. D. that the word child is the name of any child in the whole world. Similarly of the words boy, pupil, dog, star, sled, engine, river, city, cow, horse, day, and month.
- 3. Tr. If I said "a pupil may stand," whom would I mean? Chn. Any one of us. The word pupil is the name of any pupil. Tr. If I wanted this pupil to stand, what should I say? Chn. "Henry Davis may stand." Tr. If I said that, how many of you would know which pupil I meant? Why? Ch. Henry Davis is the name of only one pupil. C. D. Tr. con. and W. B. the name beside the word boy. In a similar way compare

day and Tuesday, month and June, girl and Ellen, etc. W. B. each proper name beside its common name.

4. Refer to the columns separately, and lead the class to state that the words of one list are names, and that each is the name of any one of all the things in the world of that kind; that the words of the other list are names given to particular ones. Obtain or give terms proper name and common name. Thoroughly apply. Obtain definitions of proper name and common name. Compare the two lists of words, and teach the rule for writing a proper name with a capital letter.

DICTATION EXERCISE.

Plan. — 1. Give the class a dictation exercise involving the principles and rules so far taught which they most frequently violate.

- 2. Look over their work and mark errors.
- 3. Require the pupil whose work is most nearly correct, and the pupil who has made the greatest number of mistakes, to transfer their work to the blackboard. Contrast the work, not the children. Receive criticisms upon the work, but do not tolerate jests or ridicule.
- 4. Call for criticisms on both exercises. Correct errors when the reason for each correction is given. Erase the faulty exercise.
- 5. Pupils revise or rewrite their work by reference to the remaining exercise.
 - 6. Repeat the dictation tomorrow.

Exercise.

To precede VI , page 64 [84].

OBSERVATION LESSON. — Refer the class to their Geographies. Have them copy just as they are in the book the names of a river, a lake, an ocean, a bay, and a sea. When the books are closed, ask a pupil to stand and dictate the names from his slate while you W. B. If he omit to mention a capital, have the C. D. that he is wrong. Refer him to the book. When all are written, point to the words lake, ocean, etc., and lead the class to state that they are common names, but are written with capitals. Refer to books again to see that this is correct, and teach Rule VI., page [34].

LESSON III.

PROPER NAMES AND COMMON NAMES.

Introduced by oral exercise indicated in Teacher's Edition.

- (a) A boy came yesterday. (a) A dog will bark.
- (b) Philip came yesterday. (b) Carlo will bark.
 - (a) A river flows by a city.
 - (b) The Mississippi flows by Saint Louis.

Development Questions.—1. Read the first part of each statement marked (a). 2. How can you tell from these statements which boy, dog, river, or city is meant? 3. Read the statements marked (b). 4. Tell from these statements what boy, dog, river, and city are meant. 5. How do you know from these statements which boy, dog, river, and city are meant? 6. What kind of words are Philip, Carlo, Mississippi, and Saint Louis. 7. Tell the difference between the name Philip and the name boy; the name dog and the name Carlo; the name city and the name Saint Louis; the name Mississippi and the name river.

- There are a great many boys in the world, and any one of them may be called a boy; but each boy has a name of his own; as, Philip, Charles, Scott; and such names belong only to the boys to whom they are given.
- The word dog is a name that belongs to any dog: the word Carlo is a name given to one particular dog.
- Any one of all the rivers in the world may be called a river, but each river has a name of its own; as, the Mississippi, Hudson, Platte.
- There are cities all over the world, and each is known by its particular name; as, Saint Louis, New Orleans, London, Montreal.
- III. A name given to some particular one (of a class) is called a proper name; as, Leonard, Jip, Hudson, New York.

- IV. A name that belongs to any one of a whole class or kind of things is called a common name; as, boy, dog, river, city.
- 1. Read the names in these statements; as you mention each, tell whether it is a proper name or a common name, and why:—

An island is in an ocean. Dick sings and flies. Amy sews neatly. Cuba is in the Atlantic. The bird sings and flies. The girl sews neatly.

EXAMPLE. — The word island is a common name, because it belongs to any island in the world. The word Cuba is a proper name, because it is the name of a particular island.

2. Tell which of these are proper and which common names, and why:—

lake,	star,	state,	day,
Erie,	Venus,	Alabama,	Friday,
month,	street,	country,	sled,
January,	Main,	England,	Scout,
girl,	horse,	county,	ship,
Amy,	Jack,	Broome,	Royal George.

- V. The first letter of any proper name should be a capital; as, Wednesday, June, Pacific.
- Write five common names and a suitable proper name for each object named.*
- VI. When a common name (as, lake, ocean, street, avenue, city, state, county) is joined to a proper name as part of it, it should begin with a capital letter; thus, Elm Street, Euclid Avenue, Lake Erie.

^{*} See Observation Lesson, Teacher's Edition, page 62.

4. Tell which of the following words are proper names; which are common names; and why the common names are written with capitals:-

Arizona Territory, Christmas Day, Lake Champlain. New York City, Cat Island, Atlantic Ocean.

HOME TASK.

Write the proper name of (1) the street on which you live; (2) the county in which you live; (3) the language that you speak; (4) the river nearest your home; (5) an object which you have seen.

EXERCISE 1.

Write the proper name of (1) a pupil in your class; (2) a city in this state; (3) the ocean west of the United States; (4) the lake nearest your home; (5) a boat or sled; (6) an engine or an animal; (7) this day; (8) this month; (9) the language that we speak; (10) the continent on which we live.

EXERCISE 2.

Learn to pronounce, spell, use, and write at dictation: —

THE NAMES OF DAYS.

Sunda	y,
-------	----

Monday. Tuesday. Wednesday.

Thursday. Friday, Saturday.

New Year's Day. Fourth of July.

Good Friday, Christmas.

Easter, Thanksgiving Day.

THE NAMES OF MONTHS.

1. January, 4. April, 7. July. 10. October. 2. February, 5. May, 8. August, 11. November.

6. June, 3. March. 9. September,

12. December.

EXERCISE 3.

- 1. Write the name of the month in which you were born.
- 2. Write the names of all the months which have thirty days.
- 3. Write the name of the shortest month.
- 4. Write the name of the first month in the year.
- 5. Write the name of the month in which Christmas comes.
- 6. Write the names of the two warmest months in the year.
- 7. Write the name of the middle month of Autumn.
- 8. Fill the blanks in this couplet with the names that are left out:—

winds and April showers Bring the pretty — 'flowers.

- 9. Write the names of the days of the week.
- 10. Write the name given (a) to the first day of the year;
 - (b) to the 25th of December; (c) to the great American holiday.

The seasons are Spring, Summer, Fall or Autumn, and Winter. You need not write the names of the seasons with capitals.

Exercise 4.

Copy these statements: -

- (a) Beautiful birds are found in South America.
- (b) This coral grew in the Indian Ocean.
- (c) Cotton, wool, linen, and silk are useful.
- (d) Chestnut Street is a very wide street.
- (e) The wheel has a hub, spokes, a tire, and a felly.
- 1. Draw a short line between the parts of each statement.
- 2. Draw one line under every proper name.

- 3. Draw two lines under every common name.
- 4. Make a list of the words that are names of materials.
- 5. Write the words that are names of parts.

EXERCISE 5.

Write a statement in which you use correctly, -

is, are, has, have, was, were,

a proper name,

a name of a material,

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a common name,

a name of a part.

A REVIEW LESSON.

1. Read, —

Robert Greene had an uncle who was a sea-captain. His full name was Andrew Marcus Greene, but he always wrote his name, A. M. Greene. Robert called him "Uncle Mark."

One summer Uncle Mark told Robert that he would take him and his cousin George on a voyage. The boys were delighted, and soon gained the consent of their parents and were ready to go.

They were to sail from New York, and Robert's father went with them and saw them safe on board the great ship.

During the week, they had talked a great deal about the voyage. George hoped that they would go to Africa. He knew that the ivory handle of his knife was made from the tusk of an elephant, and he had heard that many elephants were found in Africa. He had read of the ostrich, a bird six or seven feet tall, and strong enough to carry a man on its back, and he wanted to see it and get some of its feathers for his sister's hat.

Robert thought that he would like to go to Africa too. He had been told of the sponges gathered from the rocks in the sea north of Africa, and had read of the cork-trees which are robbed of their thick bark once in eight or ten years. And he wanted a gazelle, a beautiful little animal, gentle and graceful, that can be brought to this country and tamed and kept as a pet.

But Uncle Mark said that they would go to Brazil, a country in South America. He told them of the oranges and lemons, and gold and diamonds, and rare birds and plants, that are found in Brazil, and the boys thought that they would rather go there than to Africa. Robert soon found on a map the city of Rio Janeiro, where they would land and get a cargo of coffee to bring back to New York.

1. Find on a map, —

Africa and the sea north of it, Brazil,
New York, Rio Janeiro.

2. Pronounce, —

pâr-ents voy-age Rio Janeiro ŏstrich cŏf-fee ī-vo-ry el-e-phants gazelle

3. Spell, —

uncle beautiful animal orange summer cousin gentle deer coffee feathers enough diamonds cargo ivory handle

- 4. Use these words correctly in statements:—

 eye, their, dear, sail, new, sea, red,
 I. there, deer, sale, knew, see, read.
- 5. Write all the names of persons that you can find in the story. Write Uncle Mark's initials.
- 6. Copy the names of the places mentioned. Write the initials of the two cities.

- 7. Write the names of the things that the boys expected to see in Africa. Write the names of the things that Uncle Mark told them were to be found in Brazil.
- 8. Write the name of the body of water over which they would go from New York to Rio Janeiro.
- 9. Write the words that are used in the story instead of names.
- 10. Tell of what each of these is the name: -

ivory, tusk, Robert, sponge, oranges, gold, handle, New York, feathers, cork-trees.

- 11. Write two short statements about Robert Greene.
- 12. Write a statement about an ostrich, sponges, cork-trees.
- 13. Tell three uses of a period.
- 14. Give an example of the use of a capital for, -
 - (a) The first letter of a name of a person or place.
 - (b) An initial letter used instead of the name of a person or place.
 - (c) The first letter of a statement.
 - (d) The first letter of any proper name.
 - (e) The first letter of a common name when joined to a proper name.
- 15. Draw a short line between the two parts of each of these statements:

Robert was fond of animals.

He wanted a gazelle.

His Cousin George wanted to see an ostrich.

Tell whether the first part of each is composed of one word or of more than one; if the first part be but one word, tell whether that word is a name, or a word used instead of a name.

CHAPTER V.

MORE TO LEARN ABOUT STATEMENTS.

LESSON I.

THE COMMA AND AND.

See Teacher's Edition.

1. Tell what we mean by, —

a pair of gloves,
a brace of ducks,
a couple of mice,
a swarm of bees,
a herd of cattle,
a flock of birds,
a drove of horses,
a school of fish.

When we speak of the First, Second, Third, and Fourth Readers together, we do not use any of those words. We call them a series of Readers.

- 2. What is a series?
- Three or more things of the same kind following one after the other make a series; as, a series of lessons, a series of books, a series of accidents.
- In these statements we have a series of names:—

 The chair, table, door, box, and desk are made of wood.

 Carlo, Jip, Ponto, and Rover are good watch-dogs.

 A wheel has a hub, tire, felly, box, and spokes.*

^{* 1.} Have the chn. read the series of names, and omit all other words in the statement.

^{2.} Have them name, make on the blackboard, and write the name of, the mark used after each name in the series.

^{3.} Have them read the statements, omitting the word and before the last name in each series. C. D. that the statement sounds better when the word and is used, and Tr. tell them that it is used for that reason.

- 3. What mark is used between the names of a series?
- I. The comma [,] is used between the names of a series.

Because it sounds better, the word and is sometimes used, after the comma, between the last two names of a series.

EXERCISE 1.

Copy these statements and place a comma where one is needed:—

- 1. Apples peaches pears grapes and plums are common fruits.
- 2. Birds have heads necks bodies legs and wings.
- 3. That sailor has been to England Spain and Italy.
- 4. Those children were told to bring a sponge a slate a pencil and a pen.
- 5. Wood steel and brass were used to make it.

EXERCISE 2.

Finish these statements with names of parts, and use a period, a comma, and the word and, wherever needed.

1.	\mathbf{A}	shoe	has	back ish the	•
2.	\mathbf{A}	tree	has	fall was the	

- 3. An elephant has
- 5. A peacock has and

EXERCISE 3.

See Teacher's Edition, page 72.

We may make one statement out of several; thus, -

The lemons were ripe.

The grapes were ripe.

The pears were ripe.

The lemons, oranges, grapes, and pears were ripe.

When you make one statement out of several by omitting words, place a comma where the words are omitted, and use and after the comma between the last two words of the series.

1. Make one statement of, -

- (a) Flowers grew there. Moss grew there. Grasses grew there. Ferns grew there.
- (b) A farmer sells oats. A farmer sells wheat. A farmer sells hay. A farmer sells corn.
- (c) We saw horses. We saw cattle. We saw sheep. We saw dogs.
- (d) Chalk is white. Snow is white. Ivory is white.
- 2. Write the four statements made, and use the commas and and correctly.*

^{*} Before the pupils take this exercise they should have an observation lesson according to the following, or a similar plan: —

^{1.} Obtain and W. B. several statements similar to Stoves are made of iron. Chains are made of iron. Nails are made of iron. Hinges are made of iron. Chn. read the statements; select the first and second parts of each, and say that the second part of every statement is "are made of iron." Chn. copy the statements and tell how many times they wrote the words are made of iron. - Tr. Who can tell all that we have stated in these four statements in such a way that we need not write are made of iron more than once ?-H. R. — Chn. Stoves, chains, nails, and hinges are made of iron. — C. D. that all is told in one statement, and that the words "are made of iron" are used but once. - Ch. dictate and Tr. W. B. the new statement. -Chn. read and count the words in the one statement and the words in the four, say that there are not so many words in the one statement, that some words must be left out. - Tr. You may begin reading the four statements, and whenever you come to words which are not in the new statement I will make a mark. — The chn. read, and the Tr. places a comma where the words "are made of iron" are omitted. Chn. compare the four statements and the one statement. Say that the words which were just the same in all the statements are omitted from all but the last; that the mark which the Tr. made

is a comma; that the words between which the comma is placed are names; that the names follow each other, and make a series of names; that the comma is used between the names of a series. Chn. find the word and in the new statement; say that this word was not in any one of the four statements; read the new statement with and without the word and, and decide that the word and is used before the last name of the series because the statement sounds better when it is so used. Obtain statements similar to Iron is heavy. Gold is heavy. Lead is heavy. Silver is heavy. Have the chn. tell how they could state all that in one statement; say what-words would be omitted, what mark would be used, what extra word would be needed, and why the word is would be changed to are.

ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON II., CHAP. V.

- Plan. 1. Introduction. (a) If the children live in a large city, the lesson may be introduced by the story of a little child who lost its way, and could not find its friends or home. By reference to the anxiety of the parents and the suffering and fright of the little child, show the importance of every child's being able to tell where he lives, so that even a stranger could find his home.
- (b) If the children live in the country or in a small village, call attention to their books, clothing, toys, or something which they know to have been bought in a distant city and brought to their homes. Lead them to suppose that one of their number goes to the city, and meets a stranger who asks his name and where he lives. Develop the idea that it would not be sufficient to give the name of the village in or near which he lives, because many villages in the United States have the same name, or because the place is so small that a stranger might never have heard of it, and would not know in what part of the United States it is. Lead the children to suggest that he would get a better idea if told in what State the village is, and might know in what part of the State it is if told the name of the county.
- 2. Call upon various children to tell where they live. Help them to arrange the items in proper order, by showing them that the State includes the county, and the county the village; or that the State includes the city, the city the street, and the street the house (which has a number); and asking them to name the smallest first, the next larger second, and the largest last of all. Thus: (1.) house number, and name of street; (2.) name of city; (3.) name of State; or (1.) name of village; (2.) name of county; (3.) name of State.

3. Require a child to speak his full name, and to dictate the spelling and capitals, that it may be written upon the blackboard. Ask him to tell in a statement where he lives. C. D. that they can tell where he lives. W. B. the word lives after his name, and have the class dictate the remainder of the statement. Thus: Herbert Foss lives at 161 Clark Street in the city of Portland in the State of Maine; or, Gertrude Bemis lives near Oquago in Broome County in the State of New York. (Write all words in full, and omit commas between phrases.) Chn. read the statement. By reference to this statement, develop orally Lesson II. Chap. V. See [42] to [45].

Note. — In connection with the written work following Lesson II., give a few oral exercises for the purpose of teaching the children how to clearly, concisely, and intelligibly direct a stranger to places in their own locality. In order to secure the working interest of every pupil, do not specify who is to answer until after the question is given. — Tr. Suppose you were at —, and met a person who asked you to direct him to —, how would you tell him to go? — When the majority of the class have an answer ready, call upon one of them. — Hear and compare various other answers. The chn. or Tr. should point out any misapprehensions which might arise. If properly conducted, these exercises not only secure to the pupils a rare and useful accomplishment, but furnish varied opportunities for the cultivation of the observing powers and for drill in the exact use of language.

LESSON II.

THE RESIDENCE OR ADDRESS.

For preceding oral and blackboard work, see Teacher's Edition.

Alice Underwood [lives at
347 Sixth Street [in the city of
Nashville [in the State of
Tennessee.

Development Questions.—1. What is a statement? 2. Is "Alice Underwood lives at 347 Sixth Street, in the city of Nashville, in the State of Tennessee," a statement? What does it state? Read the first part and the second part of the statement.

Copy the statement.

3. What mark should be placed at the close of a statement? 4. After what word is the period placed in this statement? 5. Of what is the word Tennessee the name? 6. How should the names of persons and places be written? 7. Read every word in the statement that is the name of a person or place, and see that it begins with a capital letter. 8. What is a proper name? 9. How should a proper name be written? 10. How should the words street, county, lake, &c. be written, when joined to a proper name? 11. Look at the name of the street mentioned in the statement : is it correctly written? 12. What do you learn from such a statement?

Rewrite the statement, and omit all the words that are not proper names; thus, --

> Alice Underwood. 347 Sixth Street, Nashville.

13. Tell what words you omitted. 14. What mark should be used in a statement instead of omitted words? 15. Place commas where "lives at," "in the city of," and "in the state of" were left out.

Use your full name for the first part of a statement, and tell in the second part where you live.

Where one lives is called his residence. The name of a person and the words which show where he resides make up his address. The address is made up of four parts, viz.: -

- (a) The name of a person,
- (c) The name of a city,
- of a street.
- (b) The number and name (d) The name of a State;

or,

- (a) The name of a person,
- (c) The name of a county,
- (b) The name of a place,
- (d) The name of a State.

These four parts are called the items of the address.

II. A comma should be placed after every item of the address except the last.

A period should be placed after the last item; thus, -

Albert Edison.

Jane Peabody,

48 Euclid Avenue,

Brockport,

Cleveland,

Monroe County,

Ohio.

New York.

HOME TASK.

Learn the items of your address.

EXERCISE 1.

Write your address.

- CAUTIONS. 1. Always write your address so plainly that there cannot be a mistake in reading it.
 - 2. Do not omit any of the items.
 - 3. Begin each item a little farther to the right than the item above it.
 - 4. Begin all proper names with capitals.
 - 5. Begin the words Street, County, &c. with capitals.
 - 6. Place a comma after every item but the last.
 - 7. Place a period after the last item.

Sometimes the number and name of the street, or the name of the county, may be written in the lower left-hand corner.

[45]

III. When an item of the address is placed at the left, it should be followed by a period; thus,

Albert Edison, Cleveland, Jane Peabody,
Brockport,

48 Euclid Avenue.

Ohio.

Monroe County. New York.

TEST EXERCISES.

Exercise 1.

- 1. Copy this exercise on your slate, and use the proper marks to show what corrections should be made:—
 - (a) e c emerson
 - (b) A River flows between Brooklyn and New York city,
 - (c) Eunice and me went Satturday
 - (d) grasshoppers bees butterflies and wasps are insects,
 - (e) David Benjamin Richardson

Concord

Williamson County,

Tennessee

2. Under this write the exercise correctly.

Exercise 2. — (Dictation.)

See Teacher's Edition, page 62.

Exercise 3. — (Oral.)

1. Give an example of:—

(a) A word that is the name of $\begin{cases} 1. & \text{a person,} \\ 2. & \text{a place,} \\ 3. & \text{a thing,} \\ 4. & \text{a material,} \\ 5. & \text{a part.} \end{cases}$

- (b) A proper name; a common name.
- (c) A common name used as a part of a proper name.
- 2. Tell how many and what rules you have learned for the use of capitals.
- 3. Give four rules for the use of a period.
- 4. Give two rules for the use of the comma.
- 5. Tell what is meant by, —

a margin, a series, the address, a caret, a statement, a material.

Exercise 4.

- 1. Write your full name.
- 2. Write the initials of your name.
- 3. Write your address.
- 4. Write the name of this day.
- 5. Write the name of this month.
- 6. Write the name (a) of a material, (b) of a thing, (c) of a part, (d) of a place, (e) of a person.
- 7. Write a statement in which you use is, are, was, were, has, have.
- 8. Draw a line between the two parts of each statement.
- 9. Write a statement about yourself.
- 10. Write three statements about one thing.

CHAPTER VI

A, AN, AND THE.

LESSON I.

WHEN TO USE A AND WHEN TO USE AN.

1. Read, —

a watch, a bottle, an oak-tree, an engine, a shoe, a map, an egg, an orange, a chestnut, a lemon, an island, an ink-stand.

How do you read the word a before another word?

The word a before another word is read as if it were the first syllable of that word.

What does the word α mean?

The word a means one.

What does an mean?

An means one.

- A long time ago, people began to say ane shoe or ane egg when they meant one shoe or one egg. Then they dropped the e and said an shoe or an egg for one shoe or one egg.
- But an did not sound well before all words; as, an gun, an shoe, an nut: and it was hard to speak an before some of them, so they dropped the n before such words. Now we use either a or an to mean one.

2. Read these words and put either a or an where there

18 a — .				
	— one		- herb	
	— ang	•	- fish	
	$\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{ech}$		-	- hand
— cellar	— isla	ınd —	- tiger	— hour
Would you to use an to m		learn <i>just</i>	when to	use a and when
3. Speak the	ese words:-			
ant,	egg,	ink,	ox,	up.
	ve speak or hea s are made up			vords.
-	se words ver in each; as,	y slowly s	o that we	can hear every
ant	egg.	ink,	ox,	up,
ă-n-1	egg, t, ě-gg,	ĭ-n-k,	ŏ-x,	й-р.
5. Give the				
ă,	ĕ,	Y,	ŏ,	ŭ.
6. Read thes	e words and	give the	first sound	d of each; thus
ale,	eel,	isle,	oak,	eye.
ā,	ē,	ī,	ō,	ÿ .
7. Give the	first sound o	f each of	these wor	ds:—
ah,	air,	awe,	our,	oil,
•	ask,	owl,		oyster,
·	•	irksome.	ŕ	•

Notes. — 1. This [] mark shows that the sound of the let-

ter is short. It is called the breve.

	$\overline{}$] $mark$ sho $tled$ the ma		he letter has th	e long sound.
8. Read w	hat the echo	said:—		
	ă ĕ	ĭ	ŏ ŭ	
Read w	hat the wind	d said:—		
ā	ē ī	ō ōō	eu ē	ā
Read w	hat the fop	said:—	`	
ah	aw	ow	oi ai	aw
Sounds made $vocals$.	by the voice,	with the m	outh held well o	pen, are called
9. Give th	e vocals he	ard in th	ese words:—	
bat, man	-	-	dark, act, ape, rudd	•
_	these words ach; thus,	very slow	ly, and give th	e first sound
top,	_	pin,	•	fan.
			, k-eg,	
t,	h,	p,	k,	f.
Sounds made by the breath alone are called aspirates.				

Sounds made by the voice and breath together are called subvocals.

g,

11. Speak these words, and give the first sound heard: -

log,

l-og,

l,

j-ug.

dog, mat, gun,

d-og, m-at, g-un,

m,

bud,

b-ud,

b,

d,

I.	When	THE	FIRST	SOUND	heard	in	speaking	8	word	is	A	VOCAL
	we	may	USE A	n befor	re that	WO	rd; as,					

an ax, an earl, an acre, an egg, an hour.*

II. When the first sound heard in speaking a word is a subvocal or an aspirate, we may use a before that word; † as,

a one, a youth, a pin, a cart, a useful life, a unit, a book, a half, a ewe, a hundred.

12. Pronounce these words: give the first sound heard in each: tell whether the first sound is a vocal, subvocal, or aspirate: use a or an before each of them:—

— angle	— old man	— edge	— honor
awl	- upper room	eight	ark
— almond	— urn	— ear	— oyster
— ball	— carpet	— dark room	— oil-can
— acre	— yew	— ewe	— unit
— wagon	— young man	— eye	— aim

13. Before what words may we use a? an?

LESSON II.

HOW TO PRONOUNCE THE.

1. Read, -

the book,	the ox,	the fence,	the hour,
the cart,	the elk,	the gate,	the initial,
the dog,	the eel,	the house,	the urn.

^{*} Review the lesson on an *initial letter*, and develop the idea that the first sound heard in a word is not always the sound of the initial letter; as knot, honor, herb, hour, one, use.

 $[\]dagger$ Words beginning with the sound of h and accented on the second syllable; as, an he-ró-ic action, an his-tór-i-cal account, are exceptions to this rule.

When we speak of the as a word alone, we pronounce it the.

III. The word the is pronounced thi before a vocal, and thu before a subvocal or an aspirate.

2. Read for practice: -

thĭ angel,	thĭ east,	thŭ boat,	thŭ pencil,
thi honor,	thĭ elk,	thŭ cars,	thŭ hat,
thĭ oak,	thĭ earnest,	thŭ girl,	thŭ cap.

Exercise 1.—(Oral.)

1. Use either a or an before,—

harp, match, ark, oyster, zebra, augur, evening, lamb, wonder, echo, plum, office, ankle, idler, unit, ape, heir, vane, aisle, arm, journey.

- 2. Pronounce the before each of the above words.
- 3. Write these words and use a breve or macron correctly above each letter that stands for a vocal:—

ice,	ink,	ax,	ox,	net,
nut,	meat,	Jane,	old,	mule.

Exercise 2.

Pronounce correctly and copy:—

ĕdg-es,	ĕv-er-y,	sau-cy,
tī-ny,	hur-räh,	făst-en,
pĭl-lōw,	ŏf-fĭce,	lĭst-en,
pĭl-lar,	dĭs-trĭct,	câre.

CHAPTER VII.

MORE TO LEARN ABOUT NAMES.

LESSON I.

Introduced by oral exercise indicated in Teacher's Edition, page 85.

pencil,	cap,	hat,	book,
pencils.	caps.	hats.	books.
slate,	shoe,	clock,	desk,
slates.	shoes.	clocks.	desks,

A word may be the name of one thing.

A word may be the name of more than one thing.

- I. To show that more than one thing of a kind is meant, s is usually added to the name.
- 1. Speak and write each of these names so that it will mean more than one:—

table, bottle, lock, glove, tree, pear, finger, door, hoe, plant.

2. Speak each of these names so that it will mean but one:—

windows, pictures, arms, tongues, objects, flowers, vines, legs, names, things.

HOME TASK.

Write ten words (that are names of things, or of parts of things), to each of which you can add s to make it mean more than one.

ORAL EXERCISE TO INTRODUCE LESSON I., CHAP. VII.

Plan. — Call attention to a pencil. Have the object named. name pronounced and spelled correctly. W. B. the word pencil. chn. to say that the word pencil is a name, - that it is the name of a thing. -Tr. Of which pencil is the word pencil the name? — Ch. The word pencil is the name of any pencil. — C. D. — Tr. con. — I. R. Refer to the pencil-box and ask what is kept in that box, or show a number of pencils to the class and obtain the word pencils. Drill on the distinct utterance of the word. Have the class dictate the spelling. W. B. pencils. Have different chn. show what each word means, and lead the class to state that the word pencils is the name of "several," - "two," - "more than one"; that it ends in the letter s; that the s is "put there," or "added to" the word pencil to show that it means more than one. Same of book, books, slate, slates, etc. -Tr. Who can speak a word that is the name of one thing in the room? -H. R. — Ch. does so. — C. D. — Tr. con. — Tr. Who can speak that word so that it will be the name of more than one of those things? - H. R. -Ch. does so. - C. D. - Tr. commend. Similarly of other words. Tr. What have we learned to-day about words that are names of things? - Chn. A word may be the name of one thing. A word may be the name of more than one thing. - I. R. - S. R.

PLAN FOR ORAL EXERCISE TO PRECEDE LESSON II., CHAP. VII.

- 1. By referring to the edge of a cube, of a table, or of the blade of a knife, lead the class to speak the word edge. Drill on the sound of ĕ. Have one ch. spell the word. C. D. that it is correctly spelled. W. B. and drill on pronunciation.
- 2. Tr. Speak the word very slowly, —so slowly that I can hear each sound. —Ch. ĕ-dj. Tr. What is the first sound? —Ch. ĕ. —Tr. Which letter stands for that sound? —Ch. The letter e. —Tr. W. B. —Tr. What is the next sound which you hear? —Ch. dj. —Tr. What is the next? —Ch. There are only two sounds. —C. D. —Tr. con. —Tr. (pointing to the word). What here stands for dj? —Chn. The letters dge. —W. B. dge and teach that the e is silent. —Point to ĕ and dg as the chn. utter the sounds. —Tr. Who can name one letter which has the sound of dg in this word? —Ch. The letter j. —Tr. Give the sound of j. —Give the last sound heard in the word edge. —C. D. that the word edge ends in the sound of j. —Tr. Who

ſ

can mention something whose name ends in the sound of j?—The chn. may not be able to think of a word, and the Tr. should be prepared to suggest wedge, badge, page, cage, or others,—four or five in all.—Chn. sp. and Tr. W. B. each as given. Chn. sp. each by sound. C. D. that all of the words in the list end in the sound of j.—Tr. W. B. j above the list.

3. By a similar plan obtain a list of words ending in s, z, x, sh, and ch (as in church) and W. B. the letter or letters representing the final sound above the columns; thus.—

j	s	\boldsymbol{z}	\boldsymbol{x}	ch
edge,	dress,	adz,	box,	beach,
sponge,	gas,	topaz,	tax,	arch,
cage,	kiss,	waltz,	fox,	inch.

Have the words spelled by sound and by letter.*

- 4. Refer to the list of names which end in s. Obtain that the word dress is a word, a name, the name of a thing, the name of but one. Tr. How do we show that the word slate means more than one?—Chn. st. —Tr. We will add s to the word dress. You may speak the word dress-s.—C. D. that it is hard to speak, and that it does not sound like dress-es, which they know is the name of more than one dress. Let them try to add s to grass, moss, etc. with the same result.—Tr. What do we call more than one dress?—Chn. Dresses.—Chn. sp. the word, Tr. W. B.—C. D. that es is added to the word dress to show that it means more than one. Have the chn. speak each of the other words of the list, so that it will mean more than one, and say that es is added to these words to show that they mean more than one.
- 5. Similarly of each of the other columns except that of words which end in the sound of j.
- 6. Refer to the edges of a solid. Lead the chn. to call them edges; to say that the word edges sounds, or is spoken, as if es had been added to the word edge. Tr. W. B. edgees. C. D. that it is not spelled correctly; that it should be edges. Lead them to say that s only is added to edge to make edges, and to try to pronounce it adding s only. C. D. that that is very hard to do, and that the word is pronounced as if es were added. Give the rule for adding es to words which end in e, and, the class dictating, write the other words of the list so that each will mean more than one.
 - 7. Review and lead chn. to state II. and III., Lesson II.

^{*} Allow the words to remain. Direct the class to be prepared at the next lesson to add as many words as they can to each list. When the new words are spelled and written, continue the lesson as indicated.

[†] Show by the pronunciation that we really add es to space, lace, race, &c.

LESSON II.

Preceded by oral exercise indicated in Teacher's Edition.

1. Speak these words so that each will mean more than one:—

dress, adz, church, box, edge, wish.

Development Questions.—1. What do you add to the words dress, adz, church, box, and edge, to make each mean more than one? 2. Try to speak the words with only s added. 3. How many syllables are in the words dress, box, &c.? 4. How many are in the words dresses, boxes, churches, &c.? 5. What is the second syllable of each? 6. What does the syllable es show when added to box, dress, &c.? 7. Why do we not add s only? 8. Mention the last sound heard in speaking each of the following words:—

dress, adz, church, box, edge, wish, gas, waltz, arch, fox, age, brush.

II. When a word that is the name of but one ends in s, z, sh, x, ch (as in church), or the sound of j, we add es to show that it means more than one; as,—

axes, stitches, edges, kisses, waltzes, foxes, lashes, taxes, guesses, inches.*

2. Speak and write these names so that each will mean more than one:—

bridge, bench, wish. watch. tress. loss, prize, tush, pass. adz, ash. mesh. wedge, lodge, birch, ledge, cress, moss.

III. When we add es to a name that ends in e we drop the final e; thus,

When a word ends in ch sounded like k, as in monarch, we add s only to show that it means more than one.

bridge + es bridg + es	prize + es $priz + es$	ledge + es $ledg + es$
wedge + es	lCdge+es	edge + es
wedg+es .	lodg+es	edg + es

EXERCISE 1.

- Copy from any book ten words that mean but one, to which you can add s or es to show that they mean more than one.
- Make a statement about, —
 a boat, a fence, a bridge, a fox.
- 3. Make the same statements using each name so that it means more than one.

Exercise 2. — (Dictation.)

LESSON III.

Development Questions. — 1. Tell of what each of these words is the name: —

calf, half, sheaf, wolf.

- 2. In what letter does each of them end? 3. Speak the words so that each will mean more than one. 4. How many syllables are there in the words calves, halves, sheaves, wolves? 4. What change do you make in the words calf, half, &c., so that each may mean more than one?
- IV. When a name that means but one ends in f, the f is usually changed to v and es added to show that it means more than one.

Write these words so that each will mean more than one:—
leaf, shelf, knife, life, wife, loaf.

EXERCISE 1.

- 1. Make a statement about, —

 a calf. a wolf. a knife. a loaf. a shelf.
 - 2. Write each of those statements so that they will state about more than one calf, wolf, &c.

 - V. To change a name that means but one so that it will mean more than one, we sometimes change the word; as,—

ox, man, goose, oxen. men. geese.

- Speak the name of more than one, —
 tooth, foot, child, woman, mouse.
- 2. Write the words,—
 teeth, feet, children, women, mice.
- 3. Tell what each word means.
- 4. Speak these words so that each will mean more than one:—

deer, sheep, trout, salmon, bass, heathen, swine, cannon.

- VI. The words sheep, deer, trout, salmon, &c. are used to mean but one, and also to mean more than one.
- CAUTION. The word hose, meaning a pipe or tube, is used to mean either one or more than one. The word hose,

meaning stockings, should be used only in speaking of a pair of hose, or of several pairs.

In the same way we speak of a suit of clothes, a pair of scissors, a barrel of ashes; and the names clothes, hose, scissors, and ashes should never be used without the s.

LESSON IV.

What is a written word?

Words that we read or write are called written words.

Of what are written words made up?

Written words are made up of letters.

For what are letters used?

Letters are used to represent the sounds heard in spoken words.

How many kinds of sounds do they represent?

Three.

What are they?

The sounds are { vocals, made by the voice. aspirates, made by the breath. subvocals, made by the voice and breath.

Give examples of each.

What is a letter that represents a vocal called?

A letter that represents a vocal is called a vowel.

Name the vowels.

The vowels are a, e, i, o, and u.

What are the other letters called?

The other letters are called consonants.

What do the consonants represent?

Consonants represent subvocals and aspirates.

Note. — Two of the consonants, w and y, are sometimes used to represent vocals; as in eye, myth, myrtle, boy, oyster, now, powder.

When are w and y vowels?

When wor y represents a vocal it is a vowel.

1. Speak each of these words so that it will mean more than one:—

lady, tidy, body, baby, pony.

- 2. Tell in what letter each ends.
- 3. Is the letter before the y, in each, a vowel or a consonant?
- VII. When a name that means but one ends in y PRECEDED BY A CONSONANT the y is changed to i, and es added, to show that it means more than one; thus,

ladies, tidies, babies, bodies, ponies.

4. Speak each of these words so that it will mean more than one:—

day, boy, valley, money, donkey.

- 5. Tell what kind of a letter is used before the final y of each word.
- VIII. When a name that means but one ends in y preceded by a vowel, we merely add s to the name to show that it means more than one; as, days, boys, valleys, moneys, donkeys.

6. Write these words so that each will mean more than one:—

duty, city, cony, beauty, penny, toy, ray, monkey, play, boy.

7. Learn to spell these words that mean more than one: -

zeros,	negroes,	cantos,	heroes,
solos,	potatoes,	halos,	tomatoes,
echoes,	cargoes,	calicoes,	volcanoes,
mottoes,	grottos,	embargoes,	vetoes.

EXERCISE 1.

1. Write these names of parts of the body so that each will mean more than one:—

leg,	tooth,	tongue,	wrist,	calf,
eye,	toe,	foot,	eyelash,	ear,
nose,	thumb,	body,	knee,	hair.

2. Copy all the common names in Lesson — of your Reader, and write each so that it will mean more than one.

EXERCISE 2.

1. Change the words in this list, (a) so that those which mean but one will mean more than one; (b) so that those which mean more than one will mean but one:—

lamp, cloaks,	match, witches,	tooth,	women,
paper,	ox, ,	wolves,	feet,
house, c.	cherry,	thief,	child,
arch,	berries	mouse,	girl s.

- 2. Fill the blanks in these statements with words chosen from the list:
 - (a) The loved their children.
 - (b) The --- are ripe.
 - (c) A has four has four
 - (d) A has two —, but has not a —.

 - (e) The was made of glass.
 (f) The are made of stone.
 - (a) The is afraid of the and in
- 3. Make a statement about, —

a cherry, children, an ox, wolves. a paper, your cloaks.

4. Change the statements so that each will state about more than one.

PLAN FOR ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON V., CHAP. VII.

- 1. Obtain and W. B. a book, an apple.
- 2. Question the class as to why we use a before book, and an before apple. Lead them to say that book and apple are names, and that each is the name of but one; that a means one and that an means one, and that it would not be correct to say "a books" or "an apples" any more than it would be to say "one books" or "one apples."
- 3. W. B. the book, the apple. Chn. read. Lead them to say that the word the is pronounced thi before apple, and this before book, and to tell why in each case. Question as to whether the book means one, or more than one. Same of the apple. Lead them to state that the word the may be used before the name of but one. W. B. the books, the apples. Lead the chn. to read the words, to pronounce the correctly in each case, to say that the words books and apples are names, and that they are the names of more than one. C. D. that while we cannot use either a or an before the name of more than one, it sounds well and is correct to use the before the name of but one, and also before the name of more than one. Apply to a pencil, the pencil, the pencils, an island, the island, the islands.

- 5. Tr. (placing one of his own books on his desk). Each of you put one of your books on your desk. Chn. do so. Tr. Anna, of all the books that I see, which book is yours? Ch. This book is mine. Repeat the question and obtain the same answer from two or three others. W. B. this book. Lead the chn. to say that the word book is the name of one thing, and that the word this is used to show which book is meant. Tr. (showing the book on his desk). Which book is mine? Chn. That book is yours. C. D. W. B. that book, and lead the chn. to say that the word book is the name of one thing, and the word that is used to show which book is talked about. By reference to an object that is near, and to one that is farther away, lead the chn. to discover and to state that we use this in speaking of something near, and that in speaking of something farther away.
- 6. By reference to this book and that book, this hat and that hat, this inkstand and that inkstand, obtain that we may use this or that before a name beginning with any sound or letter.
- 7. Put two or more books on your desk and have each child place more than one upon his desk. By the plan indicated in studying this and that obtain and W. B. these books and those books. Obtain that these is used in speaking of things that are near, and those in speaking of things farther away; that either may be used before a word beginning with any sound or letter.
- 8. Compare this book and these books, that book and those books, and obtain that this and that should be used before the name of but one, and these and those before the name of more than one.
- 9. Call upon a ch. to stand and tell all that he has learned about the word this: that it is used before the name of but one; that it may be used before any sound or letter; that it is used in referring to an object which is near. Other chn. stand and tell all that they have learned about that, these, those, a or an, and the.
 - 10. A thorough and varied application of the new lesson.

LESSON V.

Preceded by oral lesson indicated in Teacher's Edition.

a book,	an organ,	an ax,	a town,
the book,	the organ,	the ax,	the town,
the books.	the organs.	the axes.	the towns

The words α and αn mean one, and should be used only before names that mean but one. The word the may be used before names that mean but one, and also before names that mean more than one.

this slate, that slate, these slates. those slates. this apple, that angle, these apples. those angles.

[60]

The word this means but one. The word that means but one. This is used in speaking of an object that is near, and that in speaking of one that is farther away.

These means more than one. Those means more than one. These shows that the things spoken of are near. Those shows that the things spoken of are farther away.

This, that, these, and those may be used before any sound or letter.

EXERCISE 1.

- Fill the blanks in this exercise with a or an, this or that, these or those:—
- 1. He drove ____ ox with ____ whip.
- 2. ___ blade has ___ point and ___ edge.
- 3. ____ shoemaker has ____ awl and ____ last.
- 4. children gave me apples.
- 5. ____ upper room is not always ____ airy room.
- arms undergrowth geese kisses

 herb goose lights

 pastures honey-bee nights

 woolen-coat aunt ice-box oxen

Note. — Warn the chn. against the use of them for those; as, "them apples" for those apples; "them boys" for those boys.

Also against the use of these and those before a word that means but one; as, "these kind of pictures," "those sort of people."

Also against the use of "this here," or "this yer," for this; and "that there," or "that 'ere," for that.

W. B. an exercise similar to the following: -

- 1. Them children will be sick.
- 2. Give me them boxes.
- 3. Those kind of boxes are heavy.
- 4. These sort of grapes are sour.
- 5. This here is mine.
- 6. Bring me that there book.
- 7. He gave me this yer book.
- 8. Jane found them pencils.
- 9. I like those sort of pencils.
- 10. These kind of pencils are hard.

Draw a line under each italicized word.

Have the class substitute the correct word to be used in each case, and after the oral criticisms are made, erase the underlined words and have the exercise written and the blanks properly filled.

Exercise 2.

1. Write a statement about, —

the door, scissors, sheep, an old coat, an owl, a child.

- 2. Read each statement so that it shall state about more than one.
- 3. Draw a line between the first and second parts of each statement.

Exercise 3.

- 1. Write each of these words so that it will mean more than one:—
 - . path, engine, balcony, shelf, woman, horse, fox, half, man, deer, notch, buggy, canopy, louse, trout.
- 2. Write two full names of persons. Write their initials.
- 3. Write two names of places; two names of things; two names of materials; two names of parts of things.

EXERCISE 4.

Read these statements, using is, are, was, were, has, or have wherever there is a ——:

- 1. Ezra a good boy.
- 2. Ezra and Charles playing in the yard.
- 3. That leaf green in summer.
- 4. The flowers in bloom.
- 5. Those flowers —— fading now.
- 6. Those leaves —— fallen from the trees.
- 7. The snow —— covered the ground.
- 8. Linen, cotton, and wool used.
- 9. We —— heard those birds sing.
- 10. He —— seen a rainbow.

Exercise 5.

Write two statements in which you use, -

- 1. A name that means but one, is, and some other words.
- 2. A name that means more than one, are, and other words.
- 3. Two or more names each of which means but one, are, and some other words.

- 4. Two or more names each of which means more than one, are, and some other words.
- 5. Draw a short line between the two parts of each statement.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

A. — ORAL

- 1. Read these two words: a, the.
- 2. Speak each of them before the words button, cover, lower shelf.
- 3. Speak the before initial, army, upper shelf.
- 4. Tell when you may use,—

 this, that, is, was, has,
 these, those, are, were, have.
- 5. Before what words may an be used?
- 6. What is a series ? an initial? a margin? a spoken word? a written word? a vocal? a vowel? a subvocal? an aspirate? a consonant? a macron? a breve? a material? a proper name? a common name?
- 7. Is y a vowel or a consonant in,—

my, myrrh, pity, young, your.

8. Is w a vowel or a consonant in, —
now, wagon, awe, wonder, we

9. What do these marks show?

≣ 1. c. δ ∧ —— / ā ĕ

10. Use either a or an and speak the before, —
end, sponge, beetle, early bird, ear, insect, worm, fly, bat, ape.

11. Give the vocal heard in, -

- (a) say, sat, air, are, ask, all.
- (e) key, let, ere, eight, herb.
- (i) ice, ill, machine, dirt.
- (o) owe, coffee, one, do, wolf, horn.
- (u) use, cup, spur, true, pull.
- (y) my, myth, myrtle.
- 12. Of what is the full name made up? Why should you always speak and write the name of a person or place very plainly?
- 13. What is a statement? Tell what each part of a statement shows.
- 14. Tell when you would use, --

I, it, we, you, he, they, she.

- 15. Name the parts of the foot of a cat, and tell, in statements, the use of each part.
- 16. Of what items is one's address made up?

B. - WRITTEN.

- Write a word that is the name of,—
 a person, a place, a thing, a material, a part.
- 2. Write the full name of a person. Draw one line under the surname and two lines under the Christian name.
- 3. Write a statement and draw a short vertical line between the two parts of it.
- 4. Make these marks on your slate, and write the name of each:—

^ · , —

5.	Copy these correction		use the prop	er marks t	o denote
	i Saw	alice.	a verry go	oode led pe	nsil.
7.	Write the in Write your Use commas	address. s where they	are needed	in these sta	
	` '	-	s bees and fl a trunk bra		
9.		n more than	so that those n one; (b) swill mean but	o that thos	
	car	bush	wolves	woman	solo
	taxes	bench .	beauties	\mathbf{deer}	hero
	walls	miss	\mathbf{body}	moss	potato
	\mathbf{wish}	topazes	day	ferns	halo
	prizes	loaf	oxen	grasses	volcano
10.	Write this cated:—	exercise and	l make all	the correcti	ons indi-
		$\underset{\Lambda}{\mathbf{Minnie}} \ \ \overset{\mathbf{E}}{{_{\mathbf{E}}}}$	stowers	./ ,/	
			≡ Phila⊅elphia	a,	
			·	enn.	
	84 Chestn	ıt street/ ≡	./		
	that b	oy, john fish ≡ ≡	er, said¢ that	i mit have ≡ ^	δ/ gh/
,/	,/ his gu	$ \begin{array}{ccc} & - & - & - \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & $	and game-b	ag A	./

SUMMARY.*

I. A word may be the name of	$\begin{cases} 2. \\ 3. \\ 4. \end{cases}$	a person. a place. a thing. a material. a part of a thing.
------------------------------	--	--

- II. Names are of two kinds. \{ 1. Proper names. \\ 2. Common names.
- III. Words are of two kinds. 1. Spoken words. 2. Written words.
- IV. The sounds are { 1. Vocal, made by the voice.
 2. Aspirate, made by the breath.
 3. Subvocal, made by voice and breath.
- V. Letters are { 1. Vowels, which represent vocals. 2. Consonants, which represent other sounds.
- VI. A name may mean { 1. but one. 2. more than one.
- VII. Use before the name of but one, $\begin{cases} 1. & a \text{ or } an. \\ 2. & the. \\ 3. & this. \\ 4. & that. \end{cases}$
- VIII. Use before the name of more than one, { 1. the. 2. these. 3. those.
 - IX. Is, was, and has state about one. Are, were, and have state about more than one.
 - X. Use a capital for

 1. The first letter of a proper name.
 2. An initial used instead of a proper name.
 3. The word I.
 4. The beginning of a statement.
 5. The initial of lake, county, street, &c., used

with a proper name.

The chn. may read each division of the Summary as a distinct sentence, and give an example of each item specified. Or, they may copy one section on their slates and write an example of each point included in that portion of the summary. Or, with the books closed, the Tr. may write the words before any brace, draw the brace, and let the chn. dictate the items which come after it. No attempt to commit the summary to memory should be allowed.

- 1. After a statement.
- XI. Use a period
- 2. After an initial used for a name.
 3. After a name standing alone.
 4. After the last item of an address.
 5. After an item of the address which is written at
- XII. Use a comma 1. Between the words of a series.
 2. After every item of an address except the last.

The word and is generally used before the last word of a series.

- 1. The name of a person.
- XIII. The address is made up of

 1. The name of a person.
 2. The house number, and the name of a street.
 3. The name of a city.
 4. The name of a State.
 Or,
 1. The name of a person.
 2. The Post-Office station.
 3. The name of a county.

 The name of a county.

 The name of a State.

 - 4. The name of a State.
- XIV. To show that a name means more than one.
- 1. Usually add s; as, coins, aprons,
- 2. After sh, x, z, s, ch (soft), and the sound of j, add es; as, brushes, foxes, topazes, gases, churches, pages.
- 3. Change f to v and add es; as,
- leaf, leaves.

 4. Change y (preceded by a consonant) to i and add es; thus, copy, copies.

 5. Change the word; as, ox, oxen;
- mouse, mice.
- Note. -1. If y be preceded by a vowel, add s; as, day, days; valley, valleys; chimney, chimneys.
 - 2. Deer, sheep, &c. are written in just the same form when they mean more than onc.
 - 3. Hose, scissors, ashes, clothes, &c. should not be used without the s.

CHAPTER VIIL

THE INQUIRY.

LESSON I.

WHAT THE INQUIRY IS, AND HOW IT IS WRITTEN.

1. Ask a question about, -

the blackboard,

a pencil,

the sun.

the door,

a parrot,

a city.

- I. A group of words used to ask a question is called an inquiry (in-quir'-y).
- 2. Make an inquiry about:

a book, the clock, your sponge, school,

a bee,

- 3. Read these inquiries:—
 - (a) When did you come?
 - (b) Is it time to go?

Notice the first letter of each inquiry and the mark that is placed after each.

An inquiry is sometimes called an interrogation.

The ? (question-mark) is called an interrogation-point.

II. An inquiry should commence with a capital letter, and be followed by an interrogation-point; thus,

Are the flowers fragrant?

Exercise 1.

Write an inquiry about, -

silk, a carpet, an oak-tree, New York, a knife, glass, school, iron, Victoria.*

EXERCISE 2.

An inquiry that can be answered by yes or no is called a direct question; thus, Have you seen him?

- 1. Write a direct question.
- 2. Write an inquiry that is not a direct question, and a statement that is an answer to it.
- 3. Make a period and an interrogation-point.
- 4. What is a statement? What is an inquiry?
- 5. Use each of these groups of words to make a statement and an inquiry:—
 - (a) market to has gone John.
 - (b) You my seen have dog.

^{* 1.} Dictate a paragraph from the Reader which the class use. Let the paragraph contain both statements and inquiries.

^{2.} Slates exchanged. Slates examined and criticised by the use of the proper marks to denote corrections. Send a few chn. to transfer to the blackboard the exercise which they have criticised, and use marks to denote criticisms while others criticise orally the slates handed to them. In all cases C. D. as to the justice of the criticisms, and the soundness of the reason given.

^{3.} Slates returned to owners. Work revised, and the rewritten paragraph compared with the printed form in the Reader for further corrections,

Exercise 3.

Correct all the mistakes in this exercise:

- 1. did he go to baltimore
- 2. he has been to indianapolis
- 3. Have you written to walter,
- 4. Are you eating a apple.

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- 5. was philip nolan there
- 6. He said that i must go.
- 7. The citys was thronged with people.
- 8. George Thomas Frank and Harry rode
- 9. The books slate pen pencil and sponge was mine:
- 10. when will you go with me

EXERCISE 4.

Use each of these words correctly in an inquiry: -

peel, pair, all, right, meat, peal, pear, awl, write, meet.

Exercise 5. — (Blackboard.)

See Teacher's Edition.*

^{*} Allow one ch. to ask a question about some object of interest to the class. W. B. the question. C. D. that it is an inquiry, and why. Let one ch. st. whether it is a direct or an indirect question. If the latter, allow another ch. to dictate a statement which is an answer to the question. W. B. the statement. C. D. that it is a statement, and why; tell about what the statement and the inquiry are made; whether is or are, was or were, has or have, was used in either, and when it is correct to use each. See IV., page 108. Allow other chn. to dictate other questions and answers about the same object or other objects, and make the sentences thus obtained the basis of a brief review,—(1.) of the definitions of the statement and inquiry; (2.) of how each should be written; (3.) of the two parts of a statement; (4.) of one use of the comma in a statement.

LESSON II.

- (a) John, did you do that?
- (b) Will you keep still, Alice?
- (c) Where are you going, baby dear?
- (d) Will you, pretty bird, sing me a song?
- (e) Can you, Madge, write a letter?

Development Questions. — 1. Read the above inquiries.

- 2. Tell of whom each question is asked. How do you know?
- 3. Ask the questions, and leave out the word or words which show of whom each question is asked.
 - 4. By what mark are those words separated from the inquiry?
- III. The word or words which show of whom a question is asked should be separated from the inquiry by a comma or commas.

EXERCISE TO FOLLOW EXERCISE 3, PAGE [71].

- 1. Have the class turn to Exercise 3, page [68]. Call upon one ch. to read (1.) and dictate the first word as it should be written. The next ch. is to dictate (without spelling) the following words, until he comes to a mistake. At the mistake he should pause, say, "Error," tell how it should be corrected, and give a reason for his correction. C. D. as to the correction and the reason given. W. B. the correct form.
- 2. When the exercise is all written on the blackboard, hang a map or newspaper over it, and have the chn. refer to their books, and try to write the exercise on their slates without making a mistake.
 - 3. Slates exchanged. Map taken down and slates criticised by reference to the blackboard. Slates returned to writers. Let the pupils, who reproduced the errors in the book, stand and give the correct form with the reason why the printed form is incorrect. Let those who created new errors mention them, receive the criticisms of the class and of the Tr., and write the correct form upon the blackboard.

Copy the inquiries on your slate, taking care to use the interrogation-points, capitals, and commas correctly.

EXERCISE 1.

Write these inquiries, and use a comma or commas wherever needed:—

- 1. Mother may I go with you?
- 2. Who wrote to you Kate?
- .3. Where little girl do you go to school?
- 4. Did you bite my toes Jack Frost?
- 5. Have you Arthur been absent this week?
- 6. Will you sing me a song, Bobolink?
- 7. How long little blossoms have you been gone?
- 8. Caroline may I walk with you?
- 9. Rachel what time is it?
- 10. When will the birds come again, mother?

Exercise 2.—(Oral.)

- 1. Ask a question about, (a) a person; (b) a place; (c) a thing; (d) a material; (e) a part of something.
- 2. Change these statements to inquiries: -

It is ten.

John was there.

I am going.

This is a statement.

The birds are singing in the woods.

- 3. Use the words in each group to make an inquiry:—
 - (a) The, December, are, snows, in, deep.
 - (b) Skate, go, me, Wednesday, will, with, you, to, next.
 - (c) Bananas, where, grow, do.
 - (d) June, do, roses, in bloom.
 - (e) Top, seen, have, knife, you, my, new, and.

Exercise 3.

1. Write an inquiry about, -

sponge,	an ostrich,	oranges,
water,	a gazelle,	cork,
coral,	the United States,	snow.

- 2. Copy these statements, and draw a short vertical line between the first part and second part of each:—
 - (a) Rubber is made from the sap of a tree.
 - (b) The rubber-tree grows on an island.
 - (c) Cork is the outer bark of an oak-tree.
 - (d) Many cork-trees grow in Spain, France, and Italy.
 - (e) I have lost my lead pencil.

EXERCISE 4.

Fill these blanks with is or are; was or were; has or have; a or an:—

- 1. 4 the clock running?
- 2. A the children in the yard?
- 3. Did Frank the rake?
- 4. Julia bought (1) inkstand.
- 5. find the boys --- sled?
- 6. Line there bird in the cage?
- 7. the geese and ducks trying to swim?
- 8. you written inquiry?
- 9. ____ that ____ interrogation-point?
- 10. ____ the statements correct?
- IV. Is, was, or has inquires about one person, place, or thing.

 Are, were, or have inquires about more than one.

CAUTION. — Use are, were, and have with the word you, whether it mean one or more than one; thus, Are you going? Were you there? Have you been ill?

EXERCISE 5.

Copy these groups of words: use an ?, a ., a ., or a capital wherever needed; tell why you use each: —

- 1. Are sponge and coral found in the sea
- 2. will you walk into my parlor silly fly?
- 3. was the story written by J G S?
- 4. Herbert anderson did you answer,
- 5. the cork-tree grows in spain france italy and africa

Correct these statements, and write each of them as it should be:—

- 1. Frank and me were late.
- 2. These kind are better.
- 3. I like those sort of people.
- 4. Him and I are going.
- 5. They were driving an oxen.

Exercise 6.

Ask a question about more than one

picture,	church,	calf,	deer,
box,	topaz,	child,	brush,
dress,	penny,	woman,	ax.

PLAN FOR ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON I., CHAP. IX.

1. Send a ch. to bring his hat. Show it to the class and ask whose hat it is. Put it on the table and ask where John's hat is. W. B., without re-

quiring the chn. to dictate, John's hat is on the table. C. D. that this is a statement, and why. Ask them to mention the words that are names in the statement. The chn. will mention John's, hat, and table. Tr. Who is named John's? - Chn. That boy. - Tr. appeal to the boy and ask him to spell his name. W. B. John. C. D. that his name is John, but that the name is written "that way" to show that the hat belongs to him. Tr. In what way is the word John written to show that the hat is his? - Chn. An s is put after the word John. - C. D. and one ch. show the s after the word John, and tell why it is placed there. - Review, adding s to a name to show that it means more than one, and inquire how we are to know that this s does not show that the word John means more than one. — Chn. or Tr. call attention to the apostrophe. Have it described. Compare it with the comma. Obtain or give its name. W. B. the word apostrophe. Drill on the pronunciation and spelling of the word. Have the chn. tell why the apostrophe and the s are added to the word John in the statement John's hat is on the table. W. B. and examine in the same way The boy's cap is lost. - Was the dog's leg broken? - and other similar examples. Compare boy's and boys, dog's and dogs, etc.

- 2. Have the chn. mention the words which are written with the 's in the examples. Draw two lines under each. Ask why the words are so written. Lead the chn. to say that each of the words is used to show to whom something belongs. The Chn. or Tr. should state that when a thing belongs to us we are said to own or to possess it, and that the words John's, boy's, dog's, etc. show or denote possession.
- 3. W. B. a few proper and common names of persons or of animals, and have the chn. dictate how the names should be written to denote possession.
- 4. Have the chn. find and copy from their Readers names which denote possession, and write after each the name of the thing possessed. Transfer a few to the blackboard as they dictate the capitals, spelling, 's, and tell how a name should be written to denote possession.

NOTE. — The rule in regard to adding the apostrophe only to plural nouns which end in s may be omitted until found in the book, unless the chn. copy such words from their Readers.

Dictate the following or a similar exercise: -

- 1. He would not rob the bird's nest.
- 2. Do you make that boy's shoes?
- 3. Paul Jones ate two ripe pears.
- 4. New York and London are large cities.
- 5. Are Jane's initials J. C. B. ?

CHAPTER IX.

MORE TO LEARN ABOUT NAMES.

LESSON I.

Preceded by oral lesson indicated in Teacher's Edition.

John's slate,

a boy's cap,

men's boots,

Davis's patent, boys' caps,

children's shoes.

A word that is a name may be spoken or written so that it will show to whom or what a thing belongs; as, John's, fox's, bird's.

A word that is used so that it will show to whom or what a thing belongs is said to denote possession.

Development Questions. — 1. Read the names, in the examples, which denote possession. 2. Tell how each is written to denote possession. 3. Describe this mark ['].

The ['] is called an apostrophe.

- 4. Write John, Davis, boy. 5. Look at each word and tell whether it means one or more than one. 6. In the examples given, what is added to each of these words to make it denote possession? 7. Write each of them so that it will denote possession. 8. How do we write a name that means but one, to make it denote possession?
- I. To denote possession, an apostrophe and an s ('s) should be added to a name that means but one; * thus, --

^{*} In writing the words "for conscience' sake," "for justice' sake," "the seamstress' sister," and the like, we add the apostrophe only, because it is not pleasant to hear so many sounds of s spoken together.

Mary, Mary's ring, child, a child's teeth, the ox, the ox's horn, bird, a bird's wing, a spider, a spider's web, girl, the girl's net.

1. Write these names so that they will denote possession:—

lady, dog, mouse, Carlo, sheep, William, deer, calf, man, Jane.

- 2. Write them so that they will mean more than one.
- 3. Which of these words mean more than one, and which denote possession?

lion's, horses, woman's, girl's, negroes, squirrel's, women, bakers, horse's, pupils, Martha's, boots.

4. Write five names that mean but one and denote possession.

LESSON II.

Read these words and tell what each shows: -

lions, flies, men, calves, farmers, foxes, bees, mice, children. hunters

A name that means more than one generally ends in s; as, birds, fishes, ladies, negroes, calves.

Sometimes a name that means more than one does not end in s; as, men, mice, oxen, teeth, children.

II. To a name that means more than one and ends in s, the apostrophe only is added to denote possession; thus,---

lions, lions' claws, bees, bees' honey, foxes, foxes' holes, calves, calves' feet, flies, flies' wings, farmers, farmers' tools.

III. To a name that means more than one but does not end in s,
the apostrophe and s ('s) are added to denote possession: —
men, men's clothes, children, children's shoes,
mice, mice's mischief, oxen, oxen's work.

RULE. — First write the name that is to denote possession; look at it; if it means more than one and ends in s, add the apostrophe only; in all other cases * add ('s) the apostrophe and s.

EXERCISE 1.

- Write these words to denote possession:—
 pony, baby, Alfred, Agnes, mother.
- 2. Write these words so that any one of them will mean more than one:—

 pony, baby, mother, woman, man.
- 3. Write them so that they will mean more than one and denote possession.
- 4. Write each of these correctly on the blackboard:—
 geeses' feathers, a wifes' wish,
 boys' and mens' clothing, flie's feet.

Exercise 2.

1. Write these names so that they will denote possession: —

^{*} See note, page 111 [73].

ox, negro, sister, pupil, fox, man, father, Margaret, girl, child, teacher, Adelia.

2. Write these names so that they will mean more than one and denote possession:—

ox, teacher, man, fox, sister, negro, pupil, child, father, girl.

- 3. Write a statement about,
 - a bird's nest, a fly's wing, farmers' houses.
- 4. Write an inquiry about, -

birds' nests, flies' wings, a farmer's house.

- 5. Correct the mistakes in the following:—
 - (a) The mans' horses ran away.
 - (b) Is Marys' slate at home?
 - (c) Two deer heads were brought in.
 - (d) The flie's wings are gauzy.
 - (e) Has the bakers' daughter returned?

Exercise 3.—(Oral.)

- Tell which of the names in this exercise mean but one; which mean more than one; and which denote possession:—
 - (a) The cat's claws are long, sharp, and curved.
 - (b) Conies' nests are built among the rocks.
 - (c) Are not a deer's antlers longer than *oxen's horns?
 - (d) Mothers' feet are sometimes tired.
 - (e) Is "the children's hour" at twilight?

- 2. Tell which groups of words are inquiries, and which are statements.
- 3. What is a statement, and how should it be written?
- 4. What is an inquiry? How should an inquiry be written?
- 5. Use these words to make a statement and an inquiry:—
 lesson have Wednesday's you learned.

LESSON III.

WORDS USED INSTEAD OF NAMES TO DENOTE POSSESSION.

See Teacher's Edition.

Development Questions. — 1. Read the following: —

My book is lost. Has your book a green cover?

That book is mine. Is this book yours?

His book is here. Her book has a green cover.

This book is his. That book is hers.

Have they found their books? Where are our books?

Those books are theirs. These books are ours.

The baby wants its mother. The bird built its nest.

- Mention the words that are used to denote possession.
 How many of these words are names?
 Instead of what are these words used?
- 5. Mention the word used instead of the name of a boy to denote possession.6. The words used instead of the name of a girl to denote possession.
- 7. Mention the other words which denote possession, and tell instead of what name each word is used.

^{*} Review words used instead of names to show about what a statement is made; as he, I, you, they, &c. W. B. statements similar to Edith put Edith's book on the desk. The book on Edith's desk is Edith's. Lead the chn. to say that they would use other words instead of repeating the name, and to dictate the

- IV. The words my, mine, your, yours, her, hers, their, theirs, our, ours, his, and its, are used instead of names to denote possession.
- CAUTION. There are no such words as hisn, theirn, ourn, yourn, and his-self. People who use them mean his, theirs, ours, yours, and himself. You should use the correct words.

EXERCISE 1.

- Fill the blanks with words used instead of names, to denote possession:—
 - (a) The bird has lost mate.
 - (b) Does the baby want ____ mother?
 - (c) The pencils on desk are
 - (d) The books on A desks are
 - (e) Are hill brothers with in?

Tell when we use, -

our or ours, your or yours, their or theirs, my or mine, her or hers, his, its.

Exercise 2.

Use each of the following words in an inquiry:—

is,	was,	has,	I,
are,	were,	have,	yours,
my,	mine,	her,	·his,
fox's,	foxes,	foxes',	child's,
children,	men,	men's,	\mathbf{wings} .

correct words. Tell them that we do not use the apostrophe before the s in its, yours, &c., because these words always denote possession. Lead them to say that, if we wish to change the word it to mean more than one, we write they, not its.

ORAL LESSONS TO PRECEDE LESSON I., CHAP. X.

Object. — To train the senses, and to cultivate perception, memory, reason, generalization, and language.

Point. — To develop ideas of the qualities of objects, and lead the class to use the words that correctly express those qualities; also to teach the terms qualities, quality, and quality-word.*

Matter: -

- Color, size, weight, odor, flavor, and the like, are called qualities or objects.
- II. Some words (as white, blue, round, oval, sweet, sour, hard, brittle, heavy) express qualities, and are called quality-words.

Appliances. — A number of objects which vary in color, in form, in flavor, or in other qualities to be considered in the lesson.

Plan I. — 1. Call attention to the objects to be used in the lesson, and have them named.

2. By a plan similar to that indicated in the *Teacher's Guide*, pp. xxiii.-xxx., obtain the words in the columns following:—

3. Refer to first list. Read these words. Of what of the objects are we

^{*} Quality-word is Not to be taught as a synonyme for adjective. An adjective may express number; as, two men;—or action; as, prancing horses;—or quantity; as, much ice;—or quality; as, good boys;—or none of these; as, Irish melodies, this book, mountain streams. The idea expressed has nothing whatever to do with its being an adjective. A word is an adjective because it modifies the application of a noun; and the application of nouns, limited or extended, is alien to the interest of a child, and above his comprehension. He is merely to test the qualities of objects, to add to his vocabulary words which express those qualities, and to learn how to change a quality-word so that it will show that one object has more than another of the quality expressed; thus, talter, heavier, more elastic, tallest, heaviest, most elastic.

thinking when we say that they are large, small, short, etc. — Chn. Of the size of the objects. — Which words here make us think of size? — Chn. read the list. — Tr. Draw brace. Of what do these words make us think? Spell size. — W. B. after brace. In a similar manner obtain and W. B. color, form, weight.

- 4. Find two objects that are alike in size and color. Two of the same color that differ in weight. Name two things that have the same form, but are unlike in weight, etc.
 - 5. Obtain, or teach, the names of other sensible qualities; as, -

Hardness,—by leading them to press their fingers against slate, and then against sponge; against wood, and then against rubber, etc.

Odor, — by requiring them to tell, without having seen the object, that it is an onion, a rose, coffee, or camphor, and that they know it by the *smell*. Give term odor.

Flavor, — by letting them taste and name what they do not see, as candy, sugar, lemon, salt, etc., and tell how they know. Give term flavor.

6. How does candy taste? Spell sweet. W. B. How does lemon taste? Name something else that is sour. Spell sour. W. B. — In the same way obtain and W. B. the words bitter, spicy, etc. Lead the class to say that these words "show" or "make us know" the flavor and odor of objects. W. B., —

7. Have the class tell by what means they find out odors, flavors, colors, weight, hardness, roughness, size, etc. Taste the glass, and tell me what flavor it has. How does it smell? What color is it? Name something else that has no odor and no flavor (china, water, silver, marble, etc.). If the class do not suggest anything, introduce the objects and have them tested.

Plan II. What is this? Name the parts of the apple as I show them to you. Class spell and Tr. W. B. the names of the parts.

stem, blow, peel, pulp, cells, seeds, 2. Question to obtain that the apple is red, round, sweet, fragrant, light, soft (or mellow), and as the chn. give and spell each word, write it on the board. Refer to names of parts. Of what do these words make you think? Spell parts. Draw brace and W. B. parts. Refer to other list. Of what of the apple do these words make you think? Chn. The color, shape, flavor, etc. Tr. Who can use one word that will mean the

color, shape, flavor, and all the things that these words make us think of? Class or teacher. Qualities.— I. R. S. R. Draw brace and W. B.; thus,—

What do we mean by the qualities of an object? Mention the qualities of an orange? Name an object, and mention some of its qualities. Lift this, and tell me one quality that it has (weight). Look at this, and tell me two qualities that it has (color and size). Find out (by taste and smell) two qualities that glass has not. Put your hand on this, and tell me two qualities that it has (roughness and hardness). Name something that has color. Mention another quality that it has.*

Plan III.—1. Question the class to obtain the examples to be used in the lesson; as,—

John's brother is tall.

My pencil is long and round.

Is it hard and smooth?

The large book is heavy.

Were they blue and brittle?

The white flower is fragrant.

These oranges are sweet.

Review statement, inquiry, names that denote possession, words used instead of names, words that mean more than one (oranges, these), or any other points which the examples illustrate.

- 2. What word shows what is said about John's brother? Underscore tall. Of what about John does the word tall make us think? W. B. the word size in a parenthesis at the right. Examine the other sentences, and W. B. at the right the names of the qualities expressed in each.
- 3. Mention a word here that makes us know size, color, weight, etc. What one word means size, color, etc.? Mention a word here that makes us think of a quality of John's brother; of the pencil; the book. Read the words to which I point, and tell what each does. Chn. Tall tells us

^{*} For matter and plans for oral lessons on the qualities of objects, see Appendix to Teacher's Edition, page 267.

of the size (a quality) of John's brother; round shows the shape (a quality) of the pencil; heavy makes us know a quality of the book; blue and brittle make us think of qualities, etc. Instead of saying that this "tells" a quality, that this "shows" a quality, that these "make us think of" qualities, etc., you may say that these words express qualities. What do they do? I. R. S. R. "These words express qualities." Name a word here that expresses a quality. What quality does it express? Mention another word that expresses that quality. How many of these words (pointing to them) express qualities? What do you mean when you say that a word "expresses a quality"? What shall we call these words to show that they express qualities? We will call them quality-words. W. B. the word (using hyphen). What kind of a word is tall? Why? Red? Why? etc. What words are quality-words?

Summary. — What would you like to have for a tea-party? As they mention various things, W. B. the names. We will write before the name of each a word that expresses a quality of it. What kind of cream will you have? As the children dictate, W. B. the words; as, sweet cream, square crackers, spicy cakes, a round loaf of soft bread, large grapes, sour lemonade, etc. Point to the words that name things; to the words that express qualities. What kind of words are they? Spell quality, qualities, quality-words. Write "Quality-words" on your slate. In a column underneath, write a list of words that express qualities of the things around you; as, hard, large, heavy, oval, brittle, etc.

CHAPTER X.

WORDS THAT EXPRESS QUALITIES.

LESSON I.

Preceded by oral lessons on the qualities of objects. - See Teacher's Edition.

Some words (as white, blue, round, oval, sweet, sour, hard, brittle, heavy) are used with the names of objects to express the qualities of those objects; thus,

white paper, The apple was hard and sour.

blue ink, Glass is brittle.

a round pebble, The books are heavy.

an oval figure. Those oranges were sweet.

Such words are called quality-words.

- Mention an object in the room, and speak a word which expresses a quality of that object.
- 2. Read the following, and mention the quality-words used:
 - (a) The icicle is cold, smooth, and transparent.
 - (b) A fragrant rose and a bitter herb grew by the gate.
 - (c) That bread is soft and porous.
 - (d) He drew a long, crooked line.

Exercise 1.—(Oral.)

- 1. Use a quality-word that expresses, —
- (a) The color of, snow, grass, the sky, a strawberry.
 - (b) The form of, a ring, an egg, a ball, a map.

- (c) The weight of, iron, cork, wood, air.
- (d) The taste of, sugar, a lemon, water.
- 2. Speak a quality-word, and mention an object which has the quality expressed by that word.
- 3. Fill the blanks in the following with quality-words which express size:—
 - (a) A (narrow) path led to the (small) cottage.
 - (b) The $\frac{\text{(broad)}}{\text{-----}}$ avenue passes the $\frac{\text{(large)}}{\text{-----}}$ house.
 - (c) A $\frac{\text{(fall)}}{\text{tree shades the}}$ roof.
- 4. Mention something that is, -

curved, yellow, square, small, tough, sharp, round, long, straight, brittle, dull, blunt, red, porous, short.

5. Tell which of the following words are names, and which are words that describe the thing named:—

rosy cheeks, blue eyes, brown hair, sunny face.

dimpled chin, pretty little mouth.

Exercise 2.

See Teacher's Edition.*

1. Tell one quality of each of the following: -

sponge, rubber, lead, silver, molasses, cork, rattan, candy, cloth, whalebone.

2. Write the word that best expresses that quality.

[•] To be sure that all have the same quality in mind, — What can we do with —— to show that it is ——. Name something else that is ——.

- 3. Use each quality-word to describe something else which has the same quality.
- 4. Write after each quality-word the name of the thing which has the quality expressed.
- 5. Use a quality-word to describe, —

[81]

the claws of a cat, the plumage of a bird, the legs of a horse, the tail of a squirrel, the wings of a fly, the coat of a dog.

Exercise 3.

1. Mention a quality-word which expresses a quality the opposite of, —

thick, late, sharp, right high, soft, wide, equal, old, deep, cool, smooth, even, large, broad.

- 2. Use each of the above quality-words correctly, and write them at dictation.
- 3. Copy the following quality-words, and write beside each a word that expresses the opposite quality:—

early, narrow, rough, wrong, dull, blunt, shallow, light, weak, slender.

HOME TASK.

See Teacher's Edition.

For plan of work in preparation for this task, see *Teacher's Guide*, page xxxi.

Listen to the sounds that you hear; be ready to-morrow to tell about three sounds that you heard, and to use the correct quality-words to show what kind of a sound each was.

EXERCISE 4.

1. Read the quality-words in the following:

a shrill whistle,

a soft voice,

a loud shriek,

a faint whisper,

a plaintive song,

a musical bell.

- 2. By what sense do we learn the qualities expressed by the words loud, shrill, musical? [82]
- 3. Use each of the above quality-words to describe a sound that you have heard.
- 4. Use a quality-word to describe correctly the sound of,—

a noise, music. thunder, a drum. the wind, laughter, a bell, a foot-step.

5. Use each of the following quality-words to describe correctly a sound that you have heard,—

harsh.

clear.

sweet.

low.

sad.

Review Lesson I., Chapter V.

LESSON II.

THE USE OF THE COMMA BETWEEN QUALITY-WORDS.

Development Questions. — 1. Read the following statements:

Glass is brittle.

Glass is hard,

Glass is smooth.

Glass is transparent.

2. Tell about what each statement is made. 3. Read the words which show what is stated about glass. What do the words brittle, hard, smooth, and transparent express? What kind of words are they? Why? 4. Tell in

one statement all that is said of glass in the four statements. Write the statement and draw a line under each quality-word used; thus,

Glass is brittle, hard, smooth, and transparent.

5. How many quality-words are there in the statement? What do we call three or more words of the same kind following one after the other? 6. Do you think that those quality-words form "a series of words"? Why? Read the series of words. 7. Of what kind of words is the series made up? Make a statement or an inquiry that contains a series of names. Fill the blanks in the following with a series of quality-words:—

(a)	The fruit was —— —— and ——.	[83]
	Gold is and	
(c)	Were the paths — — and — ?	

- 8. What mark have you learned to use between the words of a series? Write (a), (b), and (c), and use the commas correctly.
- I. Three or more quality-words forming a series should be separated by commas; thus, Cork is light, tough, and porous.
- 9. What word is generally used after the comma before the last word of a series? Read (a), (b), and (c) with, and without, the word and. Why is the word and generally used before the last word of a series?
- NOTE. When the quality-words which make up a series are used before the name of the thing they describe, the word and is generally omitted; thus, We dug a large, round, deep hole. Was the soft, warm, white wool used?

Exercise 1.

 Copy the following statements and inquiries, and use the comma correctly in each:—

The canary's song is sweet clear and musical. Were the cherries ripe red and juicy?

Do you like a long sharp slender pencil?

The baby has pretty large bright blue eyes. He sold apples oranges grapes and pears.

- 2. Draw a line under every word that is a quality-word.

 Use the last quality-word of each series before the name of something that has the quality it expresses.
- 3. Read from your slate, (a) a series of words that are names; (b) a word that is the name of but one; (c) a word that is the name of more than one; (d) a name
- [84] that denotes possession; (e) a word that is used instead of a name.
- 4. Read the first inquiry. What is an inquiry? Why is were, and not was, used in that inquiry?
- 5. Read the statement made about the baby. Change the statement so that it will be correct to use have instead of has.

Exercise 2. — (Dictation.)

- (a) Write your address.
- (b) Write: ---
 - 1. A swan has a long, slender, graceful neck and long legs.
 - 2. An owl's neck is short, thick, and strong. His eyes are large.
 - 3. Is this yours? It is not mine.
 - 4. What is smooth, thin, hard, transparent, and brittle?
 - 5. She had a sweet, soft, musical voice.
- (c) Draw a line under every word that expresses a quality.
- (d) Draw two lines under every word that denotes possession.
- (e) Draw a short vertical line between the two parts of each statement. .

Exercise 3.

II. Two quality-words used together should be separated by a comma when the word and is not used between them; thus, The smooth, transparent glass is hard and brittle.

Fill the blanks in the following with quality-words, and use

the comma or and correctly: --

2. A — path led to the cottage.

1. He drew a — line.

3. The bread was ————.				
4. Ada's — face was seen at the window.				
5. Their voices were ———.				
Exercise 4.				
1. Write the following exercise correctly:—				
$\underline{\underline{i}}$ s the bread new, and light, δ ?/				
,/ The fresh crisp crackers are new .				
e/ We saw streats, parks, stores, and churchs. e/				
l. c./ The City is on the Hudson river. [85] He/ were/ Him and i was tall strong and heavy %,/,/ ©				
2. Give a reason for each correction made.				
Exercise 5.				
Preceded by oral lessons on qualities of persons and of animals. — See Appendix, page 270.				
1. Use each of these quality-words with the name of an animal that has the quality expressed:—				
faithful, strong, mischievous, sly, patient, cunning, industrious, active.				
2. Tell two good qualities of,—				
a soldier, a pupil, a doctor, an engineer, a servant, a letter-carrier, a farmer, a clerk, a house-keeper.				

3. Write the words which express those qualities, and beside each a quality-word that expresses the opposite quality.

EXERCISE 6.

Pronounce, use correctly in a statement or inquiry, and write at dictation, -

gentle,	kind,	prompt,	neat,
patient,	brave,	just,	charitable,
amiable,	earnest,	honest,	generous,
obedient,	studious,	modest,	beautiful,
graceful,	truthful,	frugal,	handsome.

EXERCISE 7. [86]

Write the following exercise, and use suitable quality-words wherever there is a dash: --

- 1. A monkey is —— and ——.
- 2. The —— ox works all day.
- 3. Were the roses ——?
- 4. An ——, —— man need not want.
- 5. Was the soldier —, —, and —, and —?
 6. A girl should be and —.
- 7. Did he hear a ——, —— noise?
- 8. My brother is —, and —,
- 9. Will the ——, —— music disturb you?
- 10. It is ——. It is ——. Is it ——?

ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON III., CHAP. X.

Plan. — 1. By reference to objects, lead the class to make such statements as, - That is a long string, and this is short. These are both long. This is longer than that. These two are short. This is the shorter of the two.

2. As the class dictate the spelling, W. B., -

long, longer, short; shorter.

3. By a similar plan, obtain and W. B., -

large, larger, small, smaller, heavy, heavier, tall, taller.

4. Lead the class to say that long, short, large, small, etc. are quality-words, and why; to tell what quality each expresses; to say what they mean by larger, smaller, etc.; to tell that they find out which of two things is the heavier, "by comparing the things"; and that taller, heavier, etc. show that two things have been compared as to height, weight, or whatever quality is expressed.

- 5. What kind of words are mill, farm, mine? What do miller, farmer, miner, name? How do we change mill to miller; farm to farmer, etc.? What do the words small, tall, short, long, express? What kind of words are they? Add er to each of these quality-words, and see what it will show then. What kind of words are heavy, thick, deep, thin? Why? Speak each of them so that it will show that two things have been compared, and that one of these things has more of the quality expressed than the other. Write thick and deep so that each will show that. What have we learned to-day about quality-words? Tr. W. B. "A quality-word may be spoken or written so as to show that two things have been compared, and that one of the things has more than the other of the quality expressed?" Have the class read the statement, spell compared, and give examples of quality-words which show that two things have been compared.
- 6. Lead the class to discover that we do not always add er to the quality-word to show that two things have been compared; thus, more slender, not slenderer; more fragrant, not fragranter; better, not gooder; less, not littler, etc.
- 7. W. B. a list of quality-words and have the class dictate how each should be spoken or written "to show that two things have been compared." Divide the words into syllables and deduce the rule for adding er, or prefixing more, to quality-words.

LESSON III.

WHEN TO ADD ER AND WHEN TO PREFIX MORE TO A QUALITY-WORD.

Preceded by oral lesson indicated in Teacher's Edition.

a long pencil,

an easy lesson,

a longer pencil.

an easier lesson.

a beautiful flower,

a more beautiful flower.

A quality-word may be spoken or written so as to show that two things have been *compared*, and that one of them has more than the other of the quality expressed; thus,

long,

easy,

beautiful.

longer,

easier.

more beautiful.

[87]

1. Speak each of the following quality-words so as to show that one of two things has more of the quality expressed than the other:—

sweet,

red,

wide,

heavy,

modest.

small.

thin.

blue.

pretty,

industrious.

To a quality-word of one syllable, and to some quality-words of two syllables, we add er to show that one of two objects has more than the other of the quality expressed; thus,*

small-er,

heavi-er.

^{*} See Note, page [3].

Before most quality-words of two syllables, and before all quality-words of more than two syllables, we use the word more to show that one of two things has more than the other of the quality expressed; thus,

more modest, more beautiful, more industrious.

2. Tell how many syllables each of these quality-words has:—

active, neat, wide, patient, studious, bitter, tall, rough, generous, smooth, funny, homely, lovely, ugly, witty.

- 3. To which of the above quality-words would you add er?
- 4. With which of the above quality-words would you use more?
- Instead of adding er, or using more, we sometimes change the quality-word to show that one of two things has more than the other of the quality expressed; thus,

That is a good pen, but this is a better one.

5. Use these quality-words correctly: —

[88]

bad or ill worse,

little less.

6. Compare any two objects in the room which have the same quality; use the word expressing that quality so as to show that one of the two objects has more than the other of the quality expressed; thus,

The bell is heavy, but the globe is heavier. The bell is the smaller of the two.

He is taller and more slender than John.

- 7. Compare two objects that you have seen at home, and speak a word that expresses a quality which both have; speak that word so that it will show that one object has more than the other of the quality expressed.
- 8. Mention two things that are, -

hard, opaque, brittle, handsome, fragrant, clear, porous, blunt, sunny, transparent, elastic, tough, careful, little, mischievous.

9. Use each of the above quality-words so that it will show that one of two things has more than the other of the quality expressed.

EXERCISE.

1. Use suitable words to express qualities of, —

paper, a dress, roses, a cat, a pen, a house, honey, a mouse, a picture, a city, the wind, a bird.

- 2. What have you learned about the use of the comma between quality-words?
- 3. Mention three ways in which quality-words show that one of two things has more than another of the quality expressed.

LESSON IV.

WHEN TO ADD **EST** AND WHEN TO PREFIX **MOST** TO A QUALITY-WORD.

Preceded by oral exercise indicated in Teacher's Edition.*

a long pencil, a longer pencil, the longest pencil. an easy lesson, an easier lesson, the easiest lesson.

a beautiful flower, a more beautiful flower, the most beautiful flower.

- A quality-word may be spoken or written so that it will show that several things have been compared, and that one of them has more of the quality expressed than any one of the others; as, longest, easiest, most beautiful.
- 1. Speak each of these quality-words so that it will show that one of several things has more of the quality expressed than any one of the others:—

sweet, red, wide, heavy, modest, small, thin, blue, pretty, industrious.

* 1. By reference to objects, obtain and W. B.

long, tall, little, useful, longer, taller, less, more useful, longest, tallest, least, most useful.

- 2. Review qualities, quality-word, and what is taught in Lesson III. Ask how many objects must be compared to say that one is the longer, less, more useful. Insist that there should be two only. How many things did we compare when we said that this was longest? Three, several, etc. What does the word longest show? Guard them against saying "longer than all the others," by showing that it is not longer than the united length of the others, and obtain expression "longer than any one of the others."
 - 3. Teach, from many examples, when to add est and when to prefix most.

To a quality-word of one syllable, and to some quality-words of two syllables, we add est to show that one of several things has more of the quality expressed than any one of the others; thus,

smallest,

heaviest.

Before most quality-words of two syllables, and before all quality-words of more than two syllables, we use the word most to show that one of several things has more [90] of the quality expressed than any one of the others; thus,

most modest, most beautiful, most industrious.

- 2. Tell how many syllables each of these quality-words has:
 - active, neat, patient, rough, studious, bitter, tall, generous, wide, smooth, funny, homely, lovely, ugly, witty.
- 3. To which of the above quality-words would you add est?
- 4. With which of the above quality-words would you use most?
- Instead of adding est, or using most, we sometimes change the quality-word to show that one of several things has more of the quality expressed than any one of the others; thus,

good better best. little . . . less least. bad or ill . worse worst.

5. Use correctly best, least, and worst, and tell what each shows.

- CAUTIONS. 1. When comparing two things be careful to use a quality-word which shows that but two things have been compared; thus, the longer pencil, the heavier of the two, the more beautiful picture, not the longest, heaviest, or most beautiful of the two.
 - 2. Do not always use the same word to describe things; as, "a nice man," "a nice ride," "a nice funeral"; "an awful day," "an awful distance," "an awful time."

Learn as many different words as you can, (a) to express the same quality; (b) to express different qualities of the same thing.

EXERCISE 1.

- 1. Mention a quality-word, and speak the names of several things which have the quality expressed.
- Change the quality-word so that it will show, (a) that one of the things has more of that quality than another;
 (b) that one of them has more of the quality expressed than any one of the others.

Exercise 2.

Use as many suitable quality-words as you can to describe, —

- a tree, snow, ice, water, this day,
- a storm, a parrot, the sea, a mountain, a rose,
- a brook, your slate, a house, a person, a place.

Exercise 3.

- 1. Copy from your Reader five words that express qualities.
- 2. Write after each the name of something which has the quality it expresses.

- 3. Write each quality-word so that it will show, -
 - (a) That one of two things has more than another of that quality.
 - (b) That one of several things has more of that quality than any one of the others.
- 4. When do we add er to, or use more before, a qualityword?.
- 5. When do we add est to, or use most before, a qualityword?

[92] EXERCISE 4.

- 1. What is a quality-word?
- 2. When should the comma be used between quality-words?
- 3. Mention something that you saw on your way to school, and use a quality-word to describe it.
- 4. Correct the following, and give a reason for each correction made:—

most sweetest, littlest, beautifuller, squarest.

5. Tell what each of these quality-words shows:—
better, least, easier, tallest, more truthful.*

LESSON V.

ABOUT THE SPELLING OF QUALITY-WORDS WHEN ER OR EST IS ADDED.

wide,	hot,	sly,	gray,	heavy,
wider,	hotter,	slyer,	grayer,	heavier,
widest,	hottest,	slyest,	grayest,	heaviest.

^{*} In preparation for the following lesson, review Vowel and Consonant, Lesson IV., page [56].

III. When er or est is added to a quality-word that ends in e, the final e is dropped; thus,

wide + er = wid-er. wide + est = wid-est. blue + er = blu-er. blue + est = blu-est.

1. Add er and est to each of the following words, and tell how the new words should be spelled:—

white, lame, pure, safe, nice, rare, true, brave, large, loose.

IV. When a quality-word ends in a consonant with a single vowel before it, the consonant is doubled before er or est; thus,

 $hot + er = hot-t-e\dot{r},$ hot + est = hot-t-est. [93] red + er = red-d-er, red + est = red-d-est.

2. Add er and est to each of the following words, and tell how it should be spelled:—

thin, sad, wet, dim, big.*

V. When a quality-word ends in y having the sound of t, the y is changed to i before er and est; thus,

Note. — When the final y is silent or has the sound of i the y is not changed before er and est; † thus,

gray + er = gray-er, gray + est = gray-est, sly + er = sly-er sly + est = sly-est.

^{*} The words slow, low, etc. end in a silent consonant preceded by a single vowel, and the consonant is not doubled.

[†] The word dry is an exception to the rule, and changes y to i before er and est; thus, dry, drier, driest.

3. Add er and est to each of the following words, and tell how it should be spelled:—

lazy, funny, ugly, merry, busy.

4. Give the sound of final y in each of the following quality-words; add er and est to each; tell how each should be spelled, and why:—

early, rosy, shy, gay, lovely.

[94] EXERCISE 1.

1. Pronounce these quality-words: -

quiet. patient, filthy, tough, generous, slow. brave. hard. spicy, juicy, glad, good, shady, dry, gray, bad. gentle, sly, charitable. narrow.

- 2. Use each of them correctly before the name of something which has the quality expressed.
- 3. Speak the first ten of them so that each will show that one of two things has more of that quality than another.
- 4. Speak each of the last ten so that it will show that one of several things has more of the quality expressed than any other.
- 5. Tell how the words to which you added er and est should be spelled.

Exercise 2.

Use a quality-word which correctly describes, —

a sound, a book, the weather, ink, a fish, the sun, a hat, bread, paper, a dog, a lesson, a star, an ocean, a pear, a child.

HOME TASK.

Find out as many qualities of one object as you can, and write the words which best express those qualities.

A THOROUGH REVIEW AND APPLICATION.

Exercise 1. — (Oral.)

Have each pupil name an object or an animal, and tell what qualities it has that make it useful; as, —

A dog is watchful and active. My slate is large, hard, and smooth.

Exercise 2. — (Blackboard.)

- 1. Write the name of a material.
- 2. Under this, as each word is suggested and spelled by some pupil in the class, write the words that express qualities of that material.
- 3. Drill on the spelling, meaning, and correct use of each new word.
- 4. Have the words used in statements similar to, -

Wood is useful, because it is combustible. Houses are made of wood, because it is opaque and durable,

Exercise 3. — (Written.)

- Copy from your Reader five common names, and write before each a word that expresses a quality of the thing named.
- Write each quality-word so that it will show that some other object has more of that quality than the object named.
- 3. Write the quality-word so that it will show that one object has more of the quality expressed than any other object has.

Exercise 4. — (Dictation.)

Write: -

- 1. Did you, Mabel, see the Atlantic Ocean?
- 2. I saw the great, deep ocean on New Year's day.
- 3. We saw the pebbles, shells, coral, and moss.
- 4. C. E. Roberts,

New Haven,

Conn.

5. They make boys' and men's clothing.

Exercise 5. — (Blackboard.)

See Appendix, page [189].

W. B. for the class to pronounce: -

a book,	the birds,	the ants,
tomato,	peony,	hurrah,
duty,	down,	bade,
engine,	office,	just,
pretty,	aunt,	scarce.

Exercise 6. — (Dictation.)

Write the word that means more than one

edge,	waltz,	blush,	goose,	cherry,
perch,	bird,	loaf,	mouse,	zero,
cross,	box,	ox,	swine,	echo.

Exercise 7. — (Oral.)

Review the new words taught, by requiring the class to supply the ellipses in sentences which define the word; as,

- (a) Because it burns with a flame, we say that it is ——. Name something that is *inflammable*. Something else.
- (b) Because lead melts, we say that it is —. Things which dissolve are said to be —.

Exercise 8.

- Write upon the blackboard a series of questions about one thing in the room. Review, by reference to them, inquiry, group of words, how an inquiry should be written, direct questions and indirect questions.
- 2. Ask the class to write a full statement in answer to each inquiry. (The questions should be so arranged that these statements will form a short composition.) Have the statements read. Review from these: Statement, the two parts of a statement, how a statement should be written, what words may be used as the first part of a statement, one use of the comma in a statement, when is, was, or has may be used in a statement, and when are, were, or have should be used.

Exercise 9.

Correct: -

- 1. Was the gait shut ?
- 2. Hay for sail hear.
- 3. We was going away.

- 4. Has John and Julia gone?
- 5. I don't like them kind.
- .6. He had a owl and a hen.
- 7. Those sort of people are always late.
- 8. The book was mine and the slate was his'n.
- 9. Do deers have horns?
- 10. Him and David was there.

ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON I., CHAP. XI.

- Plan. 1. Write on the blackboard the following, or similar, sentences selected from a familiar reading lesson:
 - (1.) Did Rover bring you the stick ?
 - (2.) Rover took the stick to Albert.
 - (3.) Bring me the stick, Rover.
- 2. Have them read. Lead the class to say that there are three groups of words; that (1) inquires, or asks a question; that (2) is a statement, because it tells or states something; that (3) neither states nor inquires, but is a group of words.
- 3. Who was talking? To whom was he talking? What did he say to Rover? Did Rover do it? Why did Rover take the stick to Jack? What words did Jack use when he told Rover to bring him the stick? For what was this group of words pointing to (3) used?
- 4. Who can use a group of words that will tell some one to do something? As the class give commands, write each upon the board. If you wanted the door closed, what would you say? Would it be polite to say always, Come here, Shut the door, etc.? Obtain and W. B. Please come here, Bc kind enough to close the door, etc. Lead the class to say that each is a group of words used to order, or to request, that something be done. Give term command. Refer to (1), (2), and (3), and have the class tell what an inquiry is, what a statement is, and what a command is.
- 5. Call attention to commands in the Reader, and teach that a command should begin with a capital letter and be followed by a period.
- Direct the class to write a command that orders something to be done.Also a request.

CHAPTER XI.

THE COMMAND.

LESSON I.

Preceded by oral lesson indicated in Teacher's Edition.

1. Read the following groups of words, and tell for what each is used:—

Study your lessons.

Close the door.

Bring me the books.

Please ask for a letter.

- A group of words that requests, or orders, something to be done, is a command.
 - 2. How should a command be written?
- II. A command should begin with a capital letter, and be followed by a period; thus, —

Think twice before you speak once.

EXERCISE 1.

Tell which of these groups of words are statements, which are inquiries, and which are commands:—

- 1. Can you count the stars?
- 2. Follow the same path.

- 3. George Washington was our first President.
- 4. Obey your parents.
- 5. Do not whisper.
- 6. How often is the cork-tree robbed of its thick bark?
- 7. The bark is taken from the cork-tree every eighth year.
- 8. Please remember to look for it.
- 9. May I go with you?
- 10. Stay here and study.

Copy the commands on your slate.

EXERCISE 2.

- 1. Copy I. and II., Chapters II., VIII., and XI.
- 2. Write a statement, an inquiry, and two commands.

Review Lesson II., Chap. VIII.

LESSON II.

Stay here, brother John, and study. Follow the same path, Mary. Children, obey your parents.

Development Questions.—1. To whom is each of the above commands given? How do you know? 2. Read each command, and leave out the word or words which show to whom the command is given. 3. By what marks are those words separated from the commands?

III. The word or words which show to whom a command is given, or of whom a request is made, should be separated from the command by a comma or commas.

Exercise 1.

Use commas wherever needed in the following commands:-

- 1. Little children love one another.
- 2. Do not touch the nest Harry.
- 3. Hold fast Alice to all I give you.
- 4. Come pretty bird and live with me.
- 5. Show me your nest Bobolink.
- 6. Philip please look at me.
- 7. Sleep a little longer baby.
- 8. Sing your best song Canary before I go.
- 9. Tell me your full name Sarah.
- 10. Santa Claus do not forget Bertha.

Exercise 2. — (Oral.)

Arrange these words as commands: --

- 1. Walk, not, please, do, mother, fast, so.
- 2. The, while, shines, sun, make, hay.
- 3. Me, for, wait, Rachel.
- 4. Truth, always, the, without, speak, fear.
- 5. Leap, look, you, before.

Use these words in statements: -

- 1. Elephant, tusk, ivory.
- 2. Swallows, barn, eaves.
- 3. Leaves, green, summer.
- 4 Forests, parrots, South America.
- 5. Peacock, plumage, brilliant.

Use these words in inquiries: -

- 1. Your, lesson, learned.
- 2. Elephant, trunk, use.

- 3. Are, blossoms, trees.
- 4. Have, caught, fish.
- 5. Did, ball, play, recess.

EXERCISE 3. — (Blackboard.)

Copy this exercise and use a ., a ,, an ?, and a capital wherever needed. Give a reason for using each.

- 1. where have you been margaret
- 2. sit in the sunshine Clara and study
- 3. the reindeer lives in cold countries
- 4. tell me boys for what the reindeer is useful
- 5. is the reindeer more useful than a horse
- 6. the flesh the milk and the fur are useful
- 7. can the reindeer draw the sled of his master
- 8. be kind to the reindeer, driver
- 9. what does the reindeer find to eat
- 10. the reindeer feeds on moss that grows under the snow.

Exercise 4.

1. Pronounce and write at dictation, -

prom-ise,	sword,	be-side,
in-stead,	even-ing,	be-neath,
um-brel-la,	soft-en,	scarce-ly,
to-wards,	fol-low,	e-nough,
hum-ble,	al-ways,	win-dow.

- 2. Use correctly to mark the vowels in the above,
 - the macron,
- ·· the di-ær-e-sis.
- the breve,
- A the circumflex accent.*

[•] See Appendix to Part I., page [187].

ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON I., CHAP. XII.

Note. — Action-word is not to be taught as a synonyme for verb. A word that expresses action may be a noun; as, Walking tires me; — or an adjective; as, A barking dog frightened him; — or a verb; as, Ellen ran; — or a participle; as, The birds are singing. But the pupils are not dealing with words as elements of sentences, — as Parts of Speech. To them a word is the sign of an idea; a collection of sounds to be distinctly uttered; or a collection of letters to be properly written. They have learned to use, speak, and write correctly many names of objects, materials, and parts of objects, and many words that express the qualities of objects. They come now to observe actions, and to add to their stock a variety of words which express action, or which show how, when, or where actions are performed.

Matter. — Some words (as, writing, walks, ran, rolling, eats, singing) express action, and are called action-words.

- Plan. 1. W. B. a list of quality-words. Have the class read the words; tell what kind of words they are, and why; tell what quality each expresses; tell what they mean by saying that a word "expresses a quality"; and mention objects which have the quality expressed by each of those words.
- 2. By illustrating the actions expressed, or by suitable questions and directions; as, "Tell me what —— does"; "What is (or was) —— doing ?" "Because the —— sings (trots, cries, etc.), what kind of a —— is it?" obtain and W. B. a list of action-words, such as, —

bounds,	rolling,	a singing bird,
swims,	writing,	a striking clock,
sing,	walking,	a trotting horse,
write,	playing,	the crying child,
walks,	ringing,	the rolling ball,
trots,	striking,	bleating sheep.

- 3. Point to various words, and ask of what they think when they see those words. The class say, "This word tells what the —— do," "This word shows what the —— is doing," "This word makes us think of sheep that are bleating," etc. Teach them that what one does or is doing is called an action. Let them mention familiar actions.
- 4. Call upon various children to point to a word on the board that "shows" or "makes us think of" an action. C. D. in each case. Compare with a word that "shows," "tells," or "makes us think of" a quality, and lead the class to say that these words express action.
 - 5. Use each of these words that express action in a statement, inquiry, or

command. Tell which word in your statement, inquiry, or command ex-
presses action. Why do you say that the word "expresses action"? Finish
this statement with words that name parts: The bird has and
Finish this statement with words that express qualities: The bird is
- and - Finish these statements with words which express
action: The bird —. He has been —. is the best exercise.

6. What do we call a word that expresses a quality? If we call a word a quality-word because it expresses a quality, what do you think we shall call a word that expresses action? What is an action-word? I. R., S. R., and Tr. W. B. "A word that expresses action is an action-word." Drill and application.

Home Task.

Write five words that express action, and use each in a statement, in an inquiry, or in a command.

Exercise 1.

See page 149.

- 1. Have each member of the class present a request in writing.
- 2. Select a few requests to be written on the blackboard. Commend or criticise the work by reviewing, (a) what a command is, and how it should be written; (b) how the name of the person spoken to should be separated from the command.
- 3. Have the writers correct errors and then review, (a) group of words; (b) statement, and how written; (c) inquiry, and how written; (d) how the name of the person spoken to is separated from the inquiry; (e) direct and indirect question; (f) a command that orders something to be done.

CHAPTER XII.

WORDS THAT EXPRESS ACTION.

LESSON I.

WHAT AN ACTION-WORD IS.

Preceded by oral lessons indicated in Teacher's Edition.

r. enbbia moras mu	ch ten what the	ionowing do:—
The dog ——.	A bird ——. Stars ——. A fire ——.	
2. Tell who or what,	, 	
laughed.run and jump.is reciting.	—— crouches.	were cry was creep. flows.
Some words express a	ction; as, laughed	l, climbs, crying.
B. Read the following action:—	, and mention the	words which express
His mother smiled.	Walking	tires the child.
The baby is <i>crying</i> .	He shot	a flying hawk.
Skating is a winter		vs neatly.

I. A word that expresses action is an action-word.

- 4. Fill the blanks in the following with action-words: —
- (a) The fire —— the room.
 - (a) The baby —— and ——.
- (b) It —— the ice.
- (b) Clara bought a —— doll.
- (c) It —— the wood.
- (c) He —— ball.
- (d) It —— the bread.
- (d) is forbidden.
- (e) It —— the clothes.
- (e) —— is a dangerous sport.
- 5. What is an action-word? Copy five action-words from your Reader; use two of them in inquiries, two in statements, and one in a command.

Exercise 1.

See Teacher's Edition, page 147.

ORAL LESSONS TO PRECEDE LESSON II., CHAP. XII.

Matter: -

- I. An action-word may be used to state or to show what is stated.
- II. An action-word may be used before a name to describe what is named.
- III. An action-word may be used in the first part of a statement to show about what the statement is made.*

Plan I. - 1. W. B. a few statements, such as: -

The wind blows.
The blinds rattle.
He studies and recites.
The water is boiling.
A dog is howling.
Bells are ringing.

2. Have the class, (a) read the statements; (b) say that each is a statement, and why; (c) tell about what the first statement is made, and what is stated about the wind; (d) divide the first statement into its two parts thus, *The*

^{*} This may be stated, "A word may be the name of an action." To compel the use of the action-word as a name, it is better to use the above form first, as the pupils would not readily distinguish the noun from the participle in such sentences as John is riding: I enjoy riding.

wind | blows; (e) tell what the use of the second part of a statement is. In the same way, examine the remaining statements.

- 8. Refer to the first statement. What here states what the wind does? C. D. that the word blows states what the wind does; that it is an actionword, and why; that it is used in the second part of the statement to show what the wind does. Obtain similar statements with regard to rattle, studies, and recites. As each is underscored, have the class tell what kind of a word it is, in which part of the statement it is, and that it states.
- 4. Refer to the fourth statement. Have the class read the first part of the statement, and tell what the first part of a statement shows; read the second part, and tell what the second part of a statement shows. What word here states? The children will probably say boiling. Erase is, and show that it is no longer a statement; that if is be put back, the group of words states, and that therefore is is the word here that does the stating. Compare The water is hot, and The water is boiling, to lead the class to say that in both cases is states, but hot and boiling show what is stated. Have them find in the remaining statements the word that states, and the word which shows what is stated. Underscore boiling, howling, and ringing. Obtain that each is an action-word used to show what is stated.
 - 5. Call upon the class to tell something done by, -

A lion	Boys	Stars ——.
A flag	Cows	The trees
Smoke	A baby	Water ——.

Have them say of each word supplied that it is an action-word, and states what —— does.

6. Tell what these are doing: -

The flowers are ——.

You are ——.

The ice is ——.

A robin is ——.

Have them select the action-words, tell what an action-word is, and for what each action-word in these statements is used.

7. What have we learned to-day about the use of an action-word? Make a statement in which a word that expresses action states. Make a statement in which you use a quality-word to show what is stated. An action-word. Use in a statement a word that states, but does not express action, etc., etc.

Plan II. How have we learned that an action-word may be used? Give an example of an action-word that states. Make a statement in which you use an action-word to show what is stated. What is an action-word?

2. Because the water is boiling, what kind of water may we call it? By similar questions obtain and W. B. many examples; as, -

> boiling water, -rustling leaves, twinkling stars.

singing children. a flying bird,

a blooming flower. 3. Call attention to the words water, leaves, stars, etc. Lead the class to

say that they are names, and tell whether each names one or more than one. Lead them to say that the words boiling, rustling, etc. express action; that they are action-words used to tell what kind of water, leaves, etc. are named.

4. Have the class name something, and use before the name an action-word that "describes" it, or tells what kind it is; as, a waving flag, etc. Have them enumerate the three uses which they have learned that action-words have, and illustrate each in a statement.

Plan III. "Say something about riding, singing, coasting, travelling, walking," etc. In this way obtain and W. B. a few statements similar to, -

> Singing is the first exercise. Riding was taught there. Coasting is a winter sport.

- 2. Have each statement divided into its two parts, and have the class read the first and second parts of each, and tell what each part of a statement shows. Review, page [25], "The name of what is talked about, or a word used instead of its name, must be in the first part of every statement." Lead the class to say that singing (riding, etc.) is the name of an action, and that it is used in the first part of the statement to show about what the statement is made.
 - 3. W. B. several examples similar to, —

Frank rode every day. He walks now.

Emma and Edith write well.

The bough is bending. The nest is falling. The falling leaves are yellow. The nodding boy was soon asleep. Walking is good for the health. Planting begins in May. Ploughing should be done this month.

Have the class underline each action-word, and tell for what it is used.

4. W. B. a list of action-words similar to, -

screaming, worked, looking, breaks, sparkles, knitting, look, burning, waves, sews, begging, whip.

Have the class use each in a statement, tell why it is an action-word, and tell how each action-word is used in the statement made. If none be used to name or to describe, help the class to form statements in which some of them are so used; as, —

The knitting machine is very curious. Begging will not be allowed.

[100]

LESSON II.

HOW AN ACTION-WORD MAY BE USED.

Preceded by oral lessons indicated in Teacher's Edition.

1. Mention the action-words in the following, and tell for what each is used:—

prancing steeds, falling leaves,

a blazing fire,

a flowing stream.

- 2. How may an action-word be used?
- II. An action-word may be used before a name to describe what is named; thus,

the purring kitten,

a tolling bell.

[101]

3. Use each of the following action-words before a name to describe what is named:—

dancing, waving, ringing, roaring, crying, cooking, writing, crouching, riding, drawing.

- 4. Use as many different action-words as you can to describe,
 - a stream, waves, a flag, the snow, a storm, the wind, a child, a horse.
- 5. Name something, and use a word that expresses action to describe it.
- 6. In what other way may an action-word be used?

III. An action-word may be used in the first part of a statement to show about what the statement is made; thus,

Coasting | is very dangerous. Hunting | is their chief occupation.

7. Say something about, -

walking, skating, riding, cooking, rowing, writing, singing, sewing, swimming, fishing.

- 8. Write five of your statements, and draw a line between the first part and second part of each.
- 9. Draw a line under the action-words in your statements, and tell how each is used.
- 10. Mention two other ways in which an action-word may be used.

IV. An action-word may be used to state or to show what is stated; thus,

The children | write, They | are

They | are writing. [102]

11. Tell how each action-word in the following statements is used:—

Boys row and swim. The children write.
Fred is whistling. They were writing.
Albert catches the ball. Mary comes and goes.

- 12. Write three statements, and use in each an action-word that states something.
- 13. Write two statements, and use in each an action-word that merely shows what is stated.

EXERCISE 1.

Mention each action-word in the following, and tell for what it is used:—

- 1. The neighing horse is lonely.
- 2. A screaming eagle caught a flying hawk.
- 3. Did the bounding ball strike the barking dog?
- 4. She cooks, and sweeps, and sews.
- 5. He was throwing and catching the ball.
- 6. The rolling waves came on.
- 7. Coming and going take time.
- 8. Did he see a trotting horse?
- 9. Sweeping and dusting kept her busy.
- 10. Giving is good for the heart.

EXERCISE 2.

Copy the following groups of words, and fill the blanks with words which express action:—

- The daughters to school.
 They the rope and we ball.
 Was Duncan the horse?
 A dog never .
 Do not get on or off a train.
 is a pleasant employment.
- 7. and are necessary work.

- 8. machines were and —.
- 9. Robinson Crusoe —— a —— bird.
- 10. The two little boys ——.

Review Lesson V., Chapter II., page [18].

LESSON III.

ABOUT ADDING S OR ES TO ACTION-WORDS.

Introduced by oral exercise indicated in Teacher's Edition.*

1. Tell for what each action-word is used in the statements,—

Men work.

A man works.

Birds fly.

The bird flies.

Children laugh.

A child laughs.

2. Mention each action-word used in the above, and tell whether it states about one or more than one.

An action-word may state what one thing does; as,

A leaf fades.

The baby cries.

Mary quesses.

An action-word may state what two, or more than two, do; as,

Leaves fade.

Mary and Jane guess.

The babies cry.

^{*} How many balls have I here? What do they do? (Illustrating.) The balls bound. W. B. Obtain that bound is an action-word that states what the balls do. Obtain and W. B. The ball bounds, and lead the class to say that bounds is an action-word that states what one ball does. W. B. The flower blooms. The flowers —, and let the class dictate bloom. W. B. The kites rise. The kite —, and have the class dictate the correct action-word to state of but one. I go. You —. I walk. You (children) —, etc. They study. He —. From the examination of the various examples on the board prepare the class for Lesson III.

3. Make a statement in which you use an action-word that

states what only one does.

[104]

	r statement so t or more than tv		word will state
5. Tell what, -		·	
go,	, — s — 1 — s	bark, –	— fall,
_	that each wo		statements just and yet state
We add s or es to	a name to show t	hat it means more	e than one; thus,
one vine, several vines,		·-	one thief, forty thie <i>ves</i>
V. We add s or thing does;		vord when it sta	ites what but one
	many carry, one carr <i>ies</i> ,	_	six push, one push <i>es</i> .
$state\ what$	one does, neith	er s nor es sh e	ith I or you to ould be added; t You wishes.*
	Exercise	1. — (<i>Oral</i> .)	

What does s or es show when added to a name?
 When do we add s or es to an action-word?

^{*} See Caution, page [25].

3.	Fill	each	blank	in	the	following	with	an	action-word
	wł	nich s	tates v	vhat	but	one does:			

The bell —— early.

My friend —— every Tuesday.

The rose —— in June. The kitten —— mice.

That lady —— and ——. An industrious man

4. Change the statements just formed so that each will state about more than one.

5. Read. —

I write, You write, He writes. She writes, We write, They write.

and tell in each case why s is, or is not, added to the action-word.

6. Correct. —

- (a) Judith and Amy goes to school.
- (b) The children studies diligently.
- (c) You hears what I says.
- (d) Straws shows which way the wind blows.
- (e) . The molasses cover my plate.

CAUTION. — Never add s or es to an action-word that states about more than one.

EXERCISE 2.

State who or what, ---

flows,	copies,	prays,	pinches,	roars,
burn,	goes,	watch,	mixes,	employs,
see,	come,	lodges,	flash,	travel,
replies,	suffer,	bites,	dance,	toil.

EXERCISE 3.

1. Speak the following names, so that each will mean more than one; tell what change you would make in writing each, and give the rule for spelling it,—

cloud, wish, six, breeze, dress, sponge, arch, wolf, lady, valley.

[106]

- VI. The rules for spelling action-words which state what but one thing does, are like the rules for spelling names that mean more than one; * thus,
- (a) To most action-words add s only; thus, see-s, build-s.
- (b) To go and do add es; thus, go-es, do-es.
- (c) To action-words which end in s, z, x, ch (soft), sh, or the sound of j, add es; thus, bless-es, buzz-es, fix-es, catch-es, rush-es lodg-es.†
- (d) When an action-word ends in y preceded by a consonant, change the y to i and add es; thus, carr-y, carr-ies; den-y, den-ies.
- (e) When an action-word ends in y preceded by a vowel, add s only; thus, play, play-s; enjoy, enjoy-s.
- 2. Speak and write each of these action-words as you would use it to state what but one thing does:—

bend, reply, toss, grudge, itch, do, grow, employ, brush, march, fix, blaze.

^{*} See XIV., page [66].

[†] When an action-word ends in silent e the final e is dropped before es; thus, lodge + es = lodg-es; rise + es = ris-es.

- 3. To which action-words do we add s only? To which action-words do we add es?
- 4. Use each of the following words in a statement, (a) as the name of more than one; (b) as an action-word that states what but one does:—

stones, flies, kisses, wedges, studies, watches, rings, shoes, brushes, skates.

Exercise 4.

[107]

Use proper action-words to state what the following do: —

The rain, He, A miller, Trees, Smoke, We, Merchants, Dogs, Horses, They, Pupils, You.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

A. - ORAL.

- 1. What is an inquiry? A statement? A command? A direct question? An apostrophe? A quality-word? An action-word?
- 2. Name an object in the room, and speak the words which express its qualities.
- 3. Tell what these words denote: -

John's, boys', children's, yours, their.

4. Tell what each of these words expresses, and what it shows:—

good, better, best.
short, shorter, shortest.
delicate, more delicate, most delicate.

- 5. Name something, and use an action-word to describe it.
- 6. Use an action-word, (a) as the first part of a statement, (b) to state what but one does, (c) to state what two, or more than two, do, (d) to show what is stated.
- 7. What change does it make in the meaning of a statement,
 (a) to take s or es from the action-word and add it to
- [108] the name? (b) to cut off s or es from the name, and join it to the action-word?
 - 8. When should you add only the apostrophe ['] to denote possession? When should you add 's?
 - Speak five words which express qualities learned, (a) by hearing, (b) by seeing, (c) by touching, (d) by tasting, (e) by smelling.
- 10. Correct, and give the reason for each correction: -
 - (a) Has Rufus and Martha been here?
 - (b) Was the children at the well?
 - (c) Is Louise and Maria coming home?
 - (d) He took hisn, his-self.
 - (e) This is the squarest and beautifullest figure.
 - (f) Our kites lodges and gets ruined.

B. - WRITTEN.

- 1. Write an inquiry, and a statement that is an answer to it.
- 2. Write the name of the mark used after an inquiry.
- 3. Write a command, (a) that orders something to be done, (b) that requests something.
- 4. Copy, and use the comma correctly in each: -

Come up Whitefoot.

My dear daughter are you ill?

The moon is a large opaque body. He was brave truthful modest and sincere.

5. Add er and est, or prefix more and most to, -

sharp, big, merry, gay, dishonest, blue, dry, shy, fragile, truthful.

[109]

6. Write each of the following action-words as you would use it to state what but one does:—

go, pass, freeze, thresh, cry, run, tax, clutch, dodge, stay.

7. Write each of these names, (a) to mean more than one, (b) to mean but one and denote possession, (c) to mean more than one and denote possession:—

boy, child, sheep, wolf, mouse, ox, church, lady, parrot, city.

- 8. Copy the following, and fill the blanks with words used instead of names:—
 - (a) am going with sister.
 - (b) —— found —— slate.
 - (c) Have —— seen —— friends?
 - (d) —— have lost —— books and —— have found ——.
 - (e) It wants mother.
- 9. Write, (a) a statement in which you use a series of quality-words, (b) an inquiry in which you use a series of names, (c) a command in which you use a name, a quality-word, and an action-word.
- 10. Fill the blanks in the following with action-words, and tell for what each is used:—

—— is the first exercise.

They were —— in the park.

Watch the —— ball.

The earth ——.

The sun and stars ——.

ORAL EXERCISE TO PRECEDE LESSON I., CHAP. XIII.

Plan.—1. Strike the bell, and ask, What did I do? You struck the bell. What did I do then? You struck the bell again. How did I strike the bell this time? Gently (sharply, etc.). What am I doing now? How am I walking? Slowly (fast, etc.). W. B. He speaks distinctly. Obtain that it is a statement, and why; that the word he is used instead of a name, to show about what the statement is made; that the word speaks is an actionword that states, and that the word distinctly is used to show how he speaks. Underline distinctly.

W. B., —
 The cat walks —— (softly, noiselessly, etc.);
 He came —— (promptly, willingly, etc.);
 They study —— (quietly, diligently, etc.);

and many others. Question the class as to having heard the cat walk. C. D. that we cannot hear, — the cat walks softly, noiselessly, etc. Tr. What can we write here to show how the cat walks? Class dictate. W. B. the word. In a similar way fill the other blanks, and lead the class to say for what each word is used, and that all of those are "words used to show how actions are performed."

CHAPTER XIII.

WORDS THAT SHOW HOW, WHEN, OR WHERE.

LESSON I.

WORDS THAT SHOW HOW AN ACTION IS PERFORMED.

Introduced by oral exercise indicated in Teacher's Edition.

Development Questions. — 1. Copy the following statement: — Eagles fly swiftly.

- 2. Read the first part of the statement. What does the first part of a statement show? What does the second part of a statement show? 3. Which word states what eagles do? What does the word fly express in this statement? 4. What does the word swiftly show?
- I. A word may be used to show how an action is performed.
- 1. In each of the following, mention the word which expresses action, and tell which word shows how the action is performed: -
 - (a) Herman walks fast.
- (c) He speaks distinctly.
- (b) Lucy writes well.
- (d) She sews neatly.
- 2. In the following, fill the blanks with words used to show how actions are performed: —

 - (a) The man works ———— (c) The boys walk ———
 - (b) Amelia writes ——.
- (d) They study ——.

Words that show how an action is performed generally end in ly.

EXERCISE 1.

Use in statements, commands, or inquiries, -

neatly, hastily, plainly, skilfully, fast, truly, carelessly, firmly, noiselessly, well, quickly, wisely, beautifully, easily, quietly.

HOME TASK.

Observe the actions of persons and things that you see, and try to use with the word that expresses each action a word that shows how that action is performed.

EXERCISE 2.

- Use ten words that express action, and with each a word that shows how the action is performed; thus, move quietly, eats greedily, playing boisterously.
- CAUTIONS. 1. Do not use a quality-word to show how an action is performed; as, She writes good, for She writes well; He studies diligent, for He studies diligently.
- 2. Do not use a word that shows how an action is performed when you need merely to express a quality; as, She looks prettily, for She looks (is) pretty; He is nicely, for He is well.

Exercise 3.

1. Each of you think of something, — of its parts, or of its qualities, or of what it does and how its actions are performed. Do not tell anybody what it is. As you name its parts, (or use the words which express its qualities, or tell what it does and how it does it,) I will write the words, and the class may see how many can guess what it is. How many would like to play that? Now think. Who is ready? H. R.

- 2. When the pupil called upon has finished describing the object, refer to the memoranda on the board and question the class; as, Who can guess what it is that has "long, slender legs," "a short tail," "antlers," "ears," "large eyes"; that is "timid" and "graceful"; that "runs very fast"? When the object has been named by the class, or by the pupil who described it, refer to the board, and verify or correct the description given.
 - 3. Refer to the words, and review what kind of words they are, and why.
- Review Lesson I., Chapter V., page [40], and Lesson II., Chapter X., page [82].

LESSON II.

[112]

ANOTHER USE OF THE COMMA.

See Teacher's Edition.*

The snow falls slowly, silently.

Does he speak promptly and distinctly?

Struggle bravely, patiently, and hopefully.

- 1. Read the above groups of words; in each mention the words which show how an action is performed; notice the commas used; see if you can tell why each comma is used.
- 2. In the above, mention two words not separated by a comma which show how an action is performed. What is used between them?
- II. Words used to show how an action is performed should be separated by a comma, unless the word and be used between them.

^{*} By a plan similar to that indicated in the lessons reviewed, develop correct ideas as to the use of the comma and and between words which show how actions are performed.

Note. — The word and is sometimes used after the comma before the last word of a series of words that show how an action is performed.

Exercise 1.

Copy the following; draw a line under each word which shows how an action is performed; and insert a comma wherever one should have been used: --

- 1. He is working neatly skilfully swiftly.
- 2. Will they act justly wisely and generously?
- 3. Gather violets lilies crocuses and bluebells.
- 4. We want a neat patient and quick workman. [113]
- 5. Charles Henry Mitchell

278 Vermont Avenue

Utopia

Oregon.

Exercise 2.

- 1. Copy from your Reader, or a story-book, five words-which show how actions are performed.
- 2. Use in a statement, inquiry, or command one or more words that show how an action is performed.
- 3. In the following, supply words which show how actions are performed, and insert commas where they should be used:--
 - (a) The good lady spoke —— and —— to him. (b) They treated us —— and ——.
 - (c) The horses ran ——————.

 - (d) Study —— and ——.
 - (e) We play and and work —.

LESSON III.

WORDS THAT SHOW WHEN OR WHERE AN ACTION IS PERFORMED.*

They go often. We ride occasionally.
You came early. Go now and return to-morrow.

III. A word may be used to show when an action is performed.

[114]

- 1. Use correctly, to show when an action is performed,—
 then, rarely, late, to-day, seldom,
 again, soon, presently, always, already.
- 2. In the following, mention each action-word with the word that shows the time of the action:—
 - (a) The paper is published daily.
 - (b) Is the magazine issued monthly?
 - (c) Leave the room instantly.
 - (d) I learned lately that he never saw you.
 - (e) Hereafter, we will write frequently.
- 3. Use in a statement, inquiry, or command a word that shows when an action is performed.
- 4. What do the words here, there, away, and everywhere show in, —

We are sitting here. You are standing there. The bird flew away.

The sun shines everywhere.

^{* 1.} Call attention to statements in the Reader which contain words that show when or where actions are performed. Have the class dictate how the statements should be written. W. B. Examine each as to the use of certain words, and lead the class to state III. and IV.

^{2.} Require the pupils to give statements in which they use correctly the words suggested by the teacher; as, often, always, there, etc.

^{3.} Have them use and spell hear, here; there, their; all ways, always.

IV. A word may be used to show where an action is performed.

- 5. In the following, mention each action-word, and with it the word that shows the place of the action:—
 - (a) Did he walk around?
 - (b) We saw him running yonder.
 - (c) Come hither.
 - (d) They were standing together.
 - (e) Watch the people passing by.
- 6. Use in a statement, inquiry, or command a word that shows where an action is performed.

[115] EXERCISE 1.

Copy the following, and draw a line under every word that shows how, when, or where an action is performed:—

- 1. Meanwhile they wait here patiently.
- 2. Does the water flow above continually?
- 3. Do not play there to-day.
- 4. Has he gone below already?
- 5. The birds are still singing yonder.
- 6. Does he write legibly now?
- 7. Always speak distinctly and truthfully.
- 8. Shall you go there often?
- 9. He rode by gracefully yesterday.
- 10. The wind blows gently everywhere to-day.

Exercise 2.

_	FT73						(where ?)	
I.	The	hunt	er s	hot 1	the	rabbit	` 	 .
_	~			(how	?) (v	when ?)		
2.	Go '	with	him			 .		

3.	Did they meet (where?) (how?) (when?)
4.	Their youngest child died (how?) (when?)
5.	They speak — and we can (when?) hear — (how?)

EXERCISE 3.

- 1. What should we say instead of,
 - (a) He studies all the time constantly.
 - (b) She looks prettily.
 - (c) They write real good.
 - (d) The men works all day.
 - (e) Don't tell nobody.
- 2. Give an example of,
 - a proper name, a common name,
 - a quality-word, an action-word.

- a command,
- an inquiry,
- a statement, a series of words.

- 3. Write correctly, -
 - (a) I saw the child's hood.
 - (b) Little Jack Horner sat in a corner. '.
 - (c) Write your lesson carefully now.
 - (d) When will the Fourth of July come?
 - (e) An elephant's trunk is long, strong, and flexible. '
- 4. As I read the following, mention the action-words, and tell how each is used:
 - (a) The washing and ironing are done.
 - (b) The mowing machine is broken.
 - (c) A stork wades and a duck swims.
 - (d) Some one is rapping at the door.
 - (e) We will wrap this shawl around it.

5. Use a word that --

is a name, is used instead of a name, shows how, shows where. expresses a quality, a expresses action, shows when, states,

shows what is stated.

See Composition Exercises, Appendix to Teacher's Edition, pp. 271-278.

ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON I., CHAP. XIV.

Plan.—1. Not long ago I heard a little boy say, Hurrah! How do you suppose he felt? What made him say it? How do you think he would say it? Spell hurrah. Tr. W. B. (using exclamation-point), and drill on the pronunciation (see p. [188]) of hurrah! I did not hear him say anything else, but I knew that he felt glad,—rejoiced. How did I know? C. D. that Hurrah! makes us know—shows—expresses that. Tr. If you should hear some one say, Oh! how would you think he felt?

- 2. W. B. Oh / and lead the class to say, as it is uttered in various ways, that it expresses pain, pity, joy, surprise. Ah! Pshaw! Help! Hark! Look! etc.. should be introduced in a similar way.
- 3. When you "feel sad," glad, etc., where do you feel it? Feelings of the mind or heart are called *emotions*. What emotion does *Hurrah* / express? Pshaw! Oh! Mention another word that expresses emotion. Find in your Reader a word that expresses emotion. Tell what emotion it expresses. Come to the board and write the word. What mark is placed after it? What does the exclamation-point (!) show?

How do we speak a word that expresses emotion? How should we write a word to show that it expresses emotion? Erase all examples.

4. Write (at the board or on slates): -

Alas! Welcome! Hurrah!
Fire! Pshaw! Help!

5. Make an interrogation-point and an exclamation-point. Tell what each mark shows. What are emotions? Speak Oh / so that it will express pity, surprise, pain, joy. What do we call a word that expresses a quality? An action? What then may we call a word that expresses emotion? What is an emotion-word? Give an example. Tell what emotion that word expresses. Write the word so as to show that it expresses emotion? How will you read it?

ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON II., PAGE [117].

Plan. - 1. Write: -

Did he go!

The house was in flames.

The house was in flames!

- 2. From these and many similar examples, lead the class to see and state that a group of words may be spoken or written so as to express emotion, and teach that a group of words that expresses emotion is called an exclamation, and should be followed by an exclamation-point, instead of a period or question-mark.
- 3. When the lesson is mastered, show the class that an exclamation often expresses a wish; as,—

 May I be there to see!

Also, that, when an exclamation is in the form of a question no answer is expected, and the ! is used instead of the ! ; thus, —

How could I help it!

EXERCISE TO INTRODUCE LESSON I., CHAP. XV.

Plan. — Select from the Reader a few compound words. W. B. one word. Ask who has seen this word before. Have the class tell what it means; as, nut-brown, light-house, etc. Cover one part, and have the other read. Lead the class to say that two (or more) words are joined to make the word. Let them describe the little mark placed between the words. Who can mention or find in a book a word made up of two or more words joined by this little mark? As a new word is given by the class, or pointed out by the teacher, have a pupil write it on the blackboard. Let the class describe each new word added. Who knows what we call such words? Accept (or teach) compound words. W. B. Compound Words over the list. What does compound mean? Illustrate by showing a compound made by putting two colors, or ingredients, together.

CHAPTER XIV.

EMOTION-WORDS AND THE EXCLAMATION.

LESSON I.

EMOTION-WORDS AND THE EXCLAMATION-POINT.

Preceded by an oral lesson. See page 170.

Hurrah!	\mathbf{Pshaw} !	Hark!	
Ohi!	Ah!	$\mathbf{Welcome}$	
Look!	Good!	Alas!	

- Surprise, joy, sorrow, disappointment, contempt, fear, and feelings like these, are called *emotions*.
- A word that expresses emotion may be called an emotion-word; as, Rejoice! Woe! Help!
- Sometimes two or more words are used to express an emotion; as, Oh dear! Poor old man! My long lost friend!
- I. An exclamation-point [!] should be placed after a word or words used to express emotion; thus, Woe! Woe is me!
- II. When the letter 0 is used to express emotion, it should be a capital, and a comma should be placed after it; thus,—

O, look at the sun!

Exercise 1.

Fill the blanks in the following with a word or words used to express emotion:—

- 1. I hear some one coming.
- 2. We are too late to save him.
- 3. are you there?
- 4. But ____, I cannot go!
- 5. He will forget your kindness.

In the following, copy the words used to express emotion:

- 1. O, look! here is the nest.
- 2. Poor bird! I wonder where she is.
- 3. Pshaw! my pen is broken.
- 4. Hark! did the bell ring?
- 5. Ah me! I cannot go.

LESSON II.

THE EXCLAMATION, AND HOW IT IS WRITTEN.

See Teacher's Edition, page 171.

- 1. Speak each of the following groups of words so that it will express emotion:—
 - (a) How happy we shall be!
 - (b) O, he is a cruel boy!
 - (c) How could I help it!
 - (d) What a cold day it is!
 - (e) There he goes! Do look at him!
- III. A group of words that expresses emotion is called an exclamation.
- 2. Copy two exclamations from your Reader, and tell what emotion each expresses.

- 3. Speak or write an exclamation.
- 4. How should an exclamation be written?
- IV. An exclamation should be commenced with a capital letter and followed by an exclamation-point; thus,—

He is dead! What could I do! Listen to me!

- 5. Write two emotion words.
- 6. Write two exclamations.
- 7. Make these marks, and write the name of each: —

. — ^ . ! ? ' ă ā

Note. — The ? was first written ? from the first and last letter of Quaestio, which means question.

The ! was first written I from the word Io, which expresses joy.

Through carelessness the 2 has become? and the I has become?. You must take care not to confuse them.

Always use the ? after an inquiry, and the ! after an exclamation.

EXERCISE 1.

- 1. Make exclamations of these words: -
 - (a) Paper, here's, morning, your.
 - (b) The, blow, hark, hear, wind.
 - (c) Polly, a, poor, wants, Polly, cracker.
 - (d) Me, alone, please, let.
 - (e) Strike, the, did, clock.
- 2. Copy the emotion-words and exclamations found in this exercise:—
 - (a) Hey, Willie Winkle! are you coming there?

- (b) We saw the sun rise!
- (c) Hush! my babe, lie still and slumber.
- (d) Look at me, Philip!
- (e) Who would ever have believed it!
- 3. Write a statement, an inquiry, and a command.
- 4. Draw one line under the words in your statement that show about what the statement is made, and two lines under the words which show what is stated.

Exercise 2. — (Dictation.)

Write: -

- 1. Hot corn! Hot corn! Who will buy hot corn?
- 2. Hurrah! Bopeep has found her sheep.
- 3. Can you come Saturday?
- 4. O, robin, your breast is red in the spring!
- 5. I know I did it myself!

Exercise 3. — (Review.)

Write: -

- 1. Your initials and your address.
- 2. A statement about yourself.
- 3. An inquiry in which you use are, were, or have.
- 4. A statement in which you use a scries of words.
- 5. The name of, (a) a person, (b) a place, (c) a thing, (d) a material, (e) a part of something.
- 6. A proper name and a common name.
- 7. A name that means more than one, and denotes possession.
- 8. A command in which you use the name of the one commanded.
- 9. An action-word, a quality-word, and an emotion-word.
- An exclamation in which you use a word that shows how an action is performed.

CHAPTER XV.

MORE TO LEARN ABOUT WORDS.

LESSON I.

Introduced by exercise indicated on page 171.

A word may be made up of two or more words; as sail-boat, brotherin-law.

A word made up of two or more words is called a compound word.

1. Tell of what words each of these compound words is made up:—

light-house,

mother-in-law, cork-tree.

The little mark (-) placed between the parts of a compound word is called a hyphen.

2. Describe a hyphen. Tell the name and use of the little mark in these cases: -

ā,

8 - 4

saw-mill

- 3. How can you tell the hyphen from the dash?
- 4. Find in your Reader, and copy, two compound words.
- 5. Make as many compound words as you can from, —

ice.

top,

boat.

maker,

sail,

house.

- Notes. 1. When a compound word is used very much, the hyphen is dropped; as, upon, workman, fireside.
 - 2. In oral spelling and in reading words from your slate mention the hyphen as if it were a word or letter; thus, sail-boat (hyphen), or s-a-i-l hyphen b-o-a-t, sail-boat.

Exercise 1.

- In the following, mention each compound word; tell of what words it is made up; tell what it means; and spell it orally, so that there could be no mistake in writing it:—
 - 1. "An Owl and a Pussy-cat went to sea, In a beautiful pea-green boat."
 - 2. Jack-Frost wears a three-cornered hat.
 - 3. The shoemaker's watch is a good time-keeper.
 - 4. Your well-bred sailor was sea-sick before breakfast.
 - 5. Make believe that you are a run-away.
 - 6. Copy the blue-bells and draw a four-sided figure.
 - 7. Is the carving-knife on the table?
 - 8. Welcome to our old-fashioned fireside!
 - 9. By moonlight it is sea-green.
- 10. It was a heart-breaking separation!

EXERCISE 2.

1. Read these words, and tell what kind of a word each is:-

rainbow,	milk-white,	overlook,
washtub,	clear-toned,	heart-rending,
grandfather,	dark-eyed,	whitewash,
gentleman,	rosy-cheeked,	withdraw.

- 2. Use each quality-word in the above list before the name of something which has the quality it expresses.
- 3. Use the action-words in statements or commands.
- 4. Use the names in exclamations or inquiries.
- Mention a compound word that you have seen or heard; tell of what words it is made up, and how it should be written.

ORAL LESSONS TO PRECEDE LESSON II., CHAP. XV.

Matter: -

- I. Some words (as, by, in, through, above) show the position of objects or actions with regard to some other objects or actions; thus, running by the gate, in the path, through the meadow, above the stream; or, the pencil in (on, under, over, near, beside) the box.
- II. A word which shows the position of one object or action, with regard to another, is said to show the relation between them, and is called a relation-word.
- **Plan I.**—1. Look at me and see just what I do. Class observe as the teacher places a pencil in, over, near, far from, under, and beside, a box. What did I do? Where is the pencil now? In this way obtain and W. B.:—

The pencil is in the box.

The pencil is on the box.

The pencil is under the box, etc.

- 2. Refer to statements, and lead the class to say that the statements differ only in one word, and mention the differing words as the teacher underlines each.
- 3. Refer separately to in, on, under, etc., and ask what it is there for. The children will say, "To show where the pencil is." W. B. A rose is in the vase, and ask who can go and get the rose. C. D. that they do not know where it is; that they can only tell where it is "from," or "with regard to," or "when they think of," the vase. By similar examples emphasize the fact that the words in, by, etc. do not show just where a thing is, but show where it is from, or with regard to, something else. Recur to the first set of statements, and lead the class to say that in, on, etc. show where the pencil is with regard to the box.
 - 4. Dictate, as I write the list, the words in these statements that are under-

- lined. Read these words. Use each of them in a statement. Tell what each shows in your statement. What do you call pencils, boxes, tables, hats, birds, etc. Then, instead of saying that these words show the position of the pencil, the box, etc., with regard to the table, the cage, etc., you may say that each "shows the position of one object with regard to another." Apply to the various words.
- 5. Place a pencil between a book and a bell. Where is the pencil when you look at, or think of, the book and the bell? Lead them to see that between shows the position of an object or objects with regard to two objects. In a similar way, show that among (in The flowers are among the weeds, etc.) shows the position of several objects with regard to several other objects. Teach the correct use of between and among in such commands as, Divide it between the two, or among several.
- 6. As a Home Task, require the children to look at various objects, and to make a list of the words that will show the position of each object with regard to some other. Keep a list of relation-words on the board, and add to it every new word used until it is complete. Drill on the correct use of between and among. If the class say, Where are you at? Where are you going to? and the like, teach them to drop the relation-word.
 - 7. As a later lesson, obtain several examples similar to, -

knocking at the door, writing on the blackboard, running across the street. standing by the gate, works in the meadow, rode down the hill.

Have the class point out the action-words, and tell where the action was performed. Compare at, on, across, etc., with here, there, and yonder, to lead them to say that the former words show where the action is with regard to some object.

Plan II.— Review the preceding. Call upon the class to dictate statements in which they use certain words (by, in, etc.) to show where one object is with regard to another, and to show where an action is with regard to some object. Teach *Matter II.* W. B. II. Have the class apply what they have learned to many familiar, and to many new examples; thus,—

Upon (or out, or into) is a word which shows the relation between the object — and the object — (or the action — and the object —), and it is a relation-word.

LESSON II.

WORDS WHICH SHOW POSITION OR RELATION.

Preceded by oral lessons indicated in Teacher's Edition.

Words like here, there, yonder, show just where an object is, or an action is performed; thus, The book is here. The slate is there. They are playing yonder.

Some words (as, by, in, through, over) show the position of an object or action with regard to something else; thus,

The chair is by the stove.

The pencils are in the box.

A horse ran through the lane. He is running over the bridge.

1. Mention the objects, or actions, whose position with regard to something else is shown in the following:—

that box beside the door, a stool under the table, the rope around the bundle, two pictures in the book, the young lambs with the sheep, singing at the concert, looking toward the sunset, walked across the street, rode into the country, slides down the hill.

2. Mention the words which, in the above, show the place, or position, of objects or actions with regard to something else.

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A word which shows the place, or position, of one thing with regard to another, is said to show the *relation* of one thing to another.

3. In the following, mention the words which show the relation, (a) of one object to another, (b) of an action to an object:—

at on near

A child behind the door. Standing under the bridge. before beyond beside above

- A word which shows the relation of one thing to another is a relation-word.
- 4. Learn to pronounce, spell, write at dictation, and use correctly, the following relation-words:—

above,	before,	between,	out of,	toward,
among,	below,	in,	over,	with,
around,	beneath,	into,	through,	under,
at,	beside,	on,	to,	upon.

- 5. What is a relation-word? Mention a few relation-words.
- 6. Use suitable relation-words to show,
 - (a) the position of one object with regard to another,
 - (b) the relation of an action to an object.

A WORD EXERCISE.

- 1. Who has learned a new word? Spell it, and we will place it on the board. Who knows what it means? Have them dictate how to divide it into syllables, what diacritical marks to use, where to place the accent, and how to pronounce the word. Allow various children to use the word correctly in a statement, in an inquiry, or in a command. Is it a name? What kind of a word is it? Why?
- 2. Who can use the most words suitable to describe —— (an object),—— (an action),—— (a state of weather), etc.? Have the class say whether the words express a quality or an action; as, the large, red flag; the waving flag, etc.
- 3. Have them use many words that express action or motion to state what something does; as, The brook flows, murmurs, ripples, dances, runs, leaps, falls over the rocks.

LESSON III.

See Teacher's Edition.*

Learn to pronounce, spell, write at dictation, and use correctly the following:—

NAMES GIVEN TO NAMES GIVEN TO MEN OR BOYS. WOMEN OR GIRLS. father. mother. husband, wife. daughter. son. brother. sister. grandfather. grandmother. grandson, granddaughter. uncle. aunt. nephew. niece. bachelor. maid or spinster. bridegroom, bride. widower, widow. gentleman, lady. sir, madam.

^{* 1.} What is your father's brother to you? His sister? Your uncle's children? Your aunt's children? If your cousin be a boy, what is he to your father? If a girl? What is an unmarried gentleman called? an unmarried lady? a newly married gentleman? a newly married lady? etc.

^{2.} Say nothing of sex or of gender. Call upon the class to look at all the words in one list, and all those in the other, and see if they can tell why these words are here, and why bachelor, for example, should not go in the list with niece, maid, bride, etc.

^{3.} Obtain that all the words in both lists are names. What is the name of a parent that is a man? a woman who foretells? a man that is married? a woman who entertains? a man who owns houses or land? a woman who acts? etc.

^{4.} W. B., or speak, the words of one list, and let the class dictate the corresponding word, and say what it shows or names.

landlord, man-servant, actor, host, hero, prophet, wizard, landlady.
maid-servant.
actress.
hostess.
heroine.
prophetess.
witch.

LESSON IV.

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To be studied with the Teacher.

- 1. As you read the following statements,—
 - (a) Separate each statement into its two parts.
 - (b) Mention the word that states in each statement.
 - (c) Tell which words express action.
 - (d) Tell when the action is, or was, performed:

I go now.
I went yesterday.
I have gone often.
I had gone then.

I do this now. I did this yesterday.

I have done this often.

I had done this then.

I come now.

I came yesterday.

I have come often.

I had come then.

I see that now.

I saw that yesterday.

I have seen that often.

I had seen that then.

2. Use the action-words in the above, and fill the blanks in the following correctly:—

I that to-day.

I wit recently.

I this frequently.

I — that before.

I at the tago.

I will a wine ago.

I every day.

3. Use as the first part of each of the above statements:—

We, You, They, The people.

He, It, She, A person.*

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4. Correct, -

I seen the boy. I have went. He has saw. I done the work. We had came. It was did.

- CAUTIONS. 1. Came, went, did, and saw should never be used with has, have, had, was, or were.
 - 2. Done, seen, and gone should never be used without has, have, had, was, were, or some word that states.

5. Correct,—

- (a) He would have went with you.
- (b) They seen the danger.
- (c) I done it before you came.
- (d) We have saw that you done well.
- (e) He had come before it was did.

Exercise 1.

saw,	went,	seen,	heated,
did,	came,	done,	climbed.

Use one of the above words correctly wherever there is a dash in the following:—

^{*} Remember that after any word (except I or you) which means but one, have should be changed to has, and s, or es, should be added to an action-word that states what but one does.

[†] There are no such words as het and clumb, sometimes used for heated and climbed.

1. They have $\stackrel{\Omega UVV}{\longrightarrow}$ the young birds.

2. We exist the mother bird too.

3. The things were when you when

4. He didhis work well.

5. Gertrude and Winifred before I

6. The manual the iron before he the ladder.

7. James has the sea-gulls.

8. Mary and Scott 2011 a shark. [127]

9. The sailor the mast, and not fall

10. Sarah was gone when Ellen Co.

Exercise 2.

Use correctly in a statement, -

. go,	- 800,	do,	- come,
went,	saw,	did,	came,
have gone;	ahas seen,	had done,	have come.

ORAL LESSON TO PRECEDE EXERCISE 3, PAGE [127].

- 1. Can you find, on the map of Asia, a country called *Hindostan?* The people who live in that country are called *Hindoss*, and they speak a language that is not at all like ours. They use the words durna and durāna. Durna means to run, and durāna means to make another run. Now, to run is such a different thing from to make another run, that we could hardly excuse a Hindoo for saying durāna when he meant durna. But English-speaking boys and girls, and sometimes even parents and teachers, in using our language, make mistakes that are just as inexcusable. They say set, lay, and raise, when they mean sit, lie, and rise.
 - 2. Use correctly, in a statement or a command, -

sit, lie, rise, set, lay, raise.

3. The one acting may sit (take a seat), lie (recline), or rise (get up), and the words sit, lie, and rise are like durna, to run.

The words set (put in place), lay (put down), and raise (lift up) show what the one acting does to some other object, and are words like durāna, to make another run.

EXERCISE 3.

Preceded by oral lesson indicated in Teacher's Edition.

Use correctly sit, set, lie, lay, rise, or raise, wherever there is a
dash in the following: —
1. They inder the trees.
2. the things on the table.
3. Planters half cotton and tobacco.
4. Shall you early?
5. the rug on the grass, and in the sunshine.
6. Fog and smoke higher than this.
7. When the water rises will it the boats?
8. here and your head on the cushion.
9. Now I me down to sleep.
10. He himself down in the chair.
11. The nurse the child on the floor.
12. They the hens on duck's eggs.
13. The hens on the eggs.
13. The hens on the eggs. 14. by me, and do not until you are rested.
15. Will the cat Lie in front of the fire?
16. the ball on the carpet before her.
17. Let on the couch, and I will this robe over you.

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18. We constructed our garments by, and constructed dreams.

19. Like curtain and let us see the sun 20. 20. that out of the way, and you can nearer the window.

Note. — In the above exercise the word put will make good sense wherever set or lay has been correctly used. Except in speaking of vegetable products, the word lift will usually make good sense when the word raise is correctly used.

Exercise 4.—(Oral.)

Tell what each of the following means, and use each correctly in a statement, inquiry, command, or exclamation:—

sit, lie, rise, hero, bridegroom, set, lay, raise, heroine, bride, return, advance, continue.

CAUTION. — Do not say "rise up," "return back," "advance forward," or "continue on"; for rise means get up, return means turn back, advance means go forward, and continue means go on.

Exercise 5. — (Oral.)

sit, lie, rise, set, lay, raise.

In the following, fill each blank correctly with one of the above words:—

means take a seat, or occupy a seat; thus,—

and rest. I by the window.

means put, or fix, (something) in place; thus, — [129]

the pitcher on the table.

The stone was by a jeweler.

means recline (on a bed, couch, or other resting-place), or occupy a fixed position; as,—
here and rest. I will—on the lounge.
The islands—thouside the harbor.

the book on the table.

I will the carpet to-morrow.

The rain may the dust.

means get up, or ascend, or become higher; thus,—
early.

Balloons rapidly.

Rivers — in the spring.

means lift (something) up, or cause (vegetables, &c.) to grow; as,—
your hand. Farmers corn and wheat.

Exercise 6.

To be studied with the Teacher.

In these statements, mention the words that express action; tell when the action is or was performed; tell the meaning of each action-word used:—

I sit here now.

I sat here yesterday.

I have sat here often.

I had sat here then.

I set the things there now.

I set them there yesterday.

I have set them there often.

I had set them there before.

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I lie here every day. I lay the books here now.

I lay here yesterday.
I have lain here often.
I laid them there yesterday.
I have laid them yonder often.

I had lain here an hour. I had laid them here before.

I rise early now. I raise my hand now.
I rose early yesterday. I raised my hand awhile ago.
I have risen early. I have raised my hand often.
I had risen then. I had raised my hand then.

2. Use each of the above action-words correctly, in a statement, inquiry, or command.

- 3. In what two ways may the word lay be used correctly?
- 4. Which of the above action-words show what the one acting does to some other object?
- 5. Correct, —
- (a) Lay down and rest. (f) He lay them there.
- (b) I laid on the lounge. (g) He has went without me.
- (c) I had laid there an hour. (h) You seen the mistake.
- (d) I have set up twice. (i) We come last week.
- (e) He sat the things down. (j) The boys is here.

EXERCISE 7.

See Teacher's Edition.

Correct, ---

- 1. Don't tell nobody.
- 2. I was n't there neither.
- 3. Say nothing to no one.
- 4. He would n't go nowhere.
- 5. They never said nothing.

^{* 1.} Teach that words like nobody, not, neither, nothing, etc., are called negatives; and that two negatives mean the same as an affirmative. 2. Have the class tell what each statement, or command, in the above, means, as it now is, and correct it.

REVIEW AND TEST EXERCISES.

Exercise 1.—(Oral.)

Use the following words correctly, and tell what kind of a word each is:—

leather, running, Francis. my, oxen's, toward. felly, Pittsburg, soon, rough, strikes. piano, here, June. nephew. boat-house. quickly, hurrah! brave.

Exercise 2. — (Blackboard.)

1. Make these marks, and write the name of each: -

?

- 2. Write an example in which you use each of the above marks correctly.
- 3. Mark the vowels in these words: man, mane, far, care, saw.
- 4. Name the marks used above the vowels, and tell what each mark shows.
- 5. Use the proper marks to show what corrections should be made in,—

the boys Father lives onn Girard avenue. 8

Exercise 3.

- 1. Write your full name, and your initials.
- 2. Write the name of,
 - a person, a thing, a part of an object,
 - a place, a material, an action.

3. Mention a suitable proper name for, —

a horse, a month, a sled. a street, an engine, a day, a dog, an ocean, a river. a star, a country, a mountain.

- 4. How should a proper name be written?
- 5. Write correctly, and give a reason for each correction made. -

Indian ocean, Central park, Cascade avenue.

Exercise 4.

1. Write each of these names so that it will mean more than one:—

> table, S bench, box, · adz, moss, wish, leaf cannon, chimney, scissors. deer. teeth, solo, 🐠 echo. hose,

2. Give the rule for spelling each word to which you added s or es.

Exercise 5.

Correct all the mistakes in the following: -

1. frank and me was laughing hearts.

2. has albert and judith ever been to south america.

3. they gets on the cars and goes to rochester, cleveland 6/ and chicago.

4. The boy o where was he

5. Mens and boy's clothing for sale.

he 6. Her and I set at the window and seen them pass.

7. Him and the had came before you returned back.

8. He is nice and she looks handsomely.

his,

9. It is perfecter and transparenter than yours.
10. I laid on the lounge a hour.

8

those.

Exercise 6.

1. Write, and dictate the spelling of, a compound word.

2. Use correctly, and tell for what each is used, —

I,	mina	you, · yours,	she,	we,
my, or	шпе,	your, or yours,	ner, or ners,	our, or ours.
he,	it,	they,	this,	these,

EXERCISE 7.

their, or theirs,

Use correctly in a statement, or in an inquiry, —

is,	was,	has,	sit,	lie,	rise,
are,	were,	have,	set,	lay,	raise,
see,	go,	do,	does,	sat,	rose,
saw,	went,	did,	came,	lain,	raised,
seen,	gone,	done,	comes,	laid,	risen.

EXERCISE 8.

Turn to Lesson — in your Reader; look at the words used, and make a list,—

- 1. of the names.
- 2. of the words used instead of names,

its,

- 3. of the quality-words.
- 4. of the emotion-words,
- 5. of the relation-words,
- 6. of the words that show how, when, or where,

that.

- 7. of the action-words that state.
- 8. of the action-words that name or describe.

SUMMARY — (Continued).*

See Note, Teacher's Edition, page 101.

XV. A group of words may be { 1. a statement. 2. an inquiry. 3. a command. 4. an exclamation.

- 1. as a name; thus, box, Albert.

- instead of a name; as, I, his.
 to express a quality; as, brittle.
 to express action; as, running,

- XVI. A word may be used { 5. to express emotion; as, 0, alas /
 - 6. to show how; as, well, rapidly.
 - 7. to show when; as, to-day, never.
 8. to show where; as, there, yonder.
 9. to show relative position; as, at, toward, from, beside, over.

XVII. A word may be the name of $\begin{cases} 1. & a \text{ man or boy; as, uncle,} \\ & nephew, landlord. \\ 2. & a \text{ woman or girl; as, aunt,} \\ & nicce, landlady. \end{cases}$

- XVIII. Possession may be denoted
- 1. by adding the 's to a name;
- thus, boy's, men's.

 2. by adding the 'only to a name; thus, boys'.

 3. by using a word instead of
 - the name; thus, my, your.
- XIX. A word which expresses a quality may show
- 1. that one of two things has more than the other of the quality expressed; thus, taller, heavier, more beautiful.
- 2. that one of several things has more than any one of the others of the quality expressed; thus, tallest, heaviest, most beautiful.

^{*} For I. to XIV. (inclusive), see pages [65] and [66].

- XX. To spell quality-words correctly when er or est is added
- 1. drop final e before cr or est; thus, true + er = tru er.
- double a final consonant when it has a single vowel before it; thus, red + er = red-der.
- when final y has the sound of t change it to i; thus, pretty, prettier.
- remember to change y to i in adding er or est to dry; thus, dry, drier, driest.
- XXI. A word that expresses action may be used
- 1. to describe; as, running water.
- 2. to name; as, Running is tiresome.
- 3. to show what is stated; as, The water is running.
- 4. to state; as, Water runs.
- XXII. An action-word may state
- 1. what but one does; as, The bird flies.
- 2. what two, or more than two, do; as, The birds fly.
- usually add s; thus, sits, comes, looks.
- 2. to go and do add es; thus, goes,
- to action-words which end in x, z, s, ch (soft), sh, or the sound of j, add es; thus, fixes, freezes, presses, hitches, crashes, dredges.
- when final y has a consonant before it, change the y to i and add es; thus, pity, pities; supply, supplies.
- 5. add s only to an action-word that ends in y with a vowel before it; thus, stay-s, survey-s.*

XXIII. To show that an actionword states what only one does

* See Caution 1, page [136].

Note. - When an action-word ends in e, the final e is dropped before es; thus, glaze + es = glaz-es.

XXIV. Is, was, has, and does inquire of one. Are, were, have, and do inquire of more than one.

XXV. A word may be used to show the relation between

1. objects; as, men at the anvil.
2. an action and an object; as, walking through the ward

XXVI. Use a capital for $\begin{cases} 1. & \text{the first letter of an inquiry.} \\ 2. & \text{the first letter of a command.} \\ 3. & \text{the first letter of an exclamation.} \\ 4. & \text{the word } O. \end{cases}$

- XXVII. Use

 1. a . after a command.
 2. an ? after an inquiry.
 3. an ! after an exclamation.
 4. an ! after a word, or words, used to express emotion.
 - 1. to cut off the word, or words, that show of whom a question is asked.
 - 2. to cut off the word, or words, that show to whom a command is given.
- XXVIII. Use a comma

 3. after the word O.
 4. when and is omitted between two qualitywords.
 5. when and is omitted between two words that show how an action is performed.

XXIX. Use a hyphen (-) between the parts of a compound word; thus, father-in-law.

- CAUTIONS. 1. Do not add s or es to an action-word used with I or you to state what one does.
 - 2. Do not use has, have, or had, before did, went, or came.
 - 3. Do not use seen, gone, or done, without has, was, have, had, or some word that states.

ORAL LESSONS TO PRECEDE LESSON I., CHAP. XVI.

- Plan I.—1. Show the class a letter, and ask what it is. C. D. that it is a letter. Tr. What is a letter? Analyze the various answers given, and combine them into: "A letter is a written communication from one person (or persons) to another (or others)."
- 2. By whom was this letter written? Let several look, and agree. What makes you think that the letter was written by ———? Who put his name here? When one signs his own name, it is called his signature. W. B. signature. Have it pronounced and spelled. Compare sign and sign|ature, and ask what a signature is. W. B. the name of a child in the class. Have him write his name under it. C. D. which is his signature, and why. Have various pupils look at the signature of the letter, and tell what it shows. If the class suggest autograph as an equivalent for signature, show them that auto|graph, written by himself, may be the writer's name on a card, in a book, or at the close of a letter. But that the signature is signed to, or under, something; as a letter, a written exercise, a bill, a receipt, etc.
- 3. To whom was this letter written? Various children examine the letter, and agree. Tr. con. Where should the letter be sent to reach him? C. D. What here shows to whom the letter was written, and where it should be sent? What do the name of a person and the words that show where he resides make up? Read the address found on this letter. Take this letter and read the address. What does the address of a letter show? Of what items should it be made up? (See Lesson II., page [42].)
- 4. In what do we put a letter to send it to the person to whom it was written. W. B. envelope, and drill on the spelling and pronunciation. (Decide upon en-velope or en-vel-op, and use but one form until that is taught.) Here is the envelope in which —— sent the letter. Of what use is the envelope of a letter? C. D. "It keeps people from reading the letter." "It keeps the letter from getting lost, soiled, or torn." "It shows the post-master to what place, and to whom, the letter should be sent." Take this envelope and tell me what you find on it. Various children report: a stamp, the address, a circle with the name of a place and a date in it. Have the class tell who put each there, and of what use each may be. Lead them to see that the address on the envelope is for the post-master, and that the address inside is for any one who may find the letter outside of the envelope, or in the wrong envelope. Tell them about the Dead-Letter Office, the expense to the government, the delay, and the loss which come from misdirected, un-

directed, or poorly directed letters. Impress upon the class the importance of the rules and cautions found in Lesson II., Chap. V.

- 5. Blackboard practice in writing very plainly many different addresses and the signature of the writer.
- Plan II. Distribute a few letters, and several envelopes that have been once used. Review the spelling and pronunciation of signature, envelope, address.
- 2. Have a pupil read an address. Let the class tell what the address of a letter should show, in what two places the address should appear, and of what use the address is: on the envelope; on the letter inside. Tell them of the old fashion of folding the sheet of paper, sealing the ends together, and writing the address on the back of the letter. Because the address on the back, or on the envelope, is written over, or above, the letter, it is called the superscription. W. B. superscription, and drill on its spelling, meaning, and application.
- 3. Refer to the stamp. Have the class tell that the stamp is to pay for carrying the letter through the mail. Teach them the value of, and when to use, a three-cent, two-cent, or one-cent stamp. Teach them that the stamp should always be placed in the upper right-hand corner of the envelope, and why.
- 4. Who can find something else on the envelope? H. R. The pupil reads, and the class state, that this shows at what station and on what day the letter was mailed. Other pupils find and read the post-mark on other envelopes. Collect the letters and envelopes.
- 5. Call attention to the letter used in the previous lesson. Have the pupils look at it, and tell by whom it was written. Tr. Where was he when he wrote the letter? Several examine the letter, and agree that he was at——, in ——. Others look at the letter to verify that, and dictate how the words that show where he was should be written. Tr. W. B. The remainder of the class compare the letter with the writing on the board. When did he write the letter? How do you know? Others look at the letter to verify this, and dictate how the date should be written. The remainder of the class compare what is written on the board with the same items on the letter. C. D. that those items show where and when the letter was written. Distribute letters and have different pupils read the items that show where and when each was written. Give term heading. W. B. Drill and application.
- 6. Have various pupils dictate, or W. B., the correct items to show that a letter was written: (a) from here, to-day; (b) from the capital of the State, last Christmas; (c) from New York, New Year's Day.
 - 7. Lead them to see that it is always interesting to know where one is when

he writes, and how long ago the letter was written. The post-master's stamp shows where and when it was mailed, not written; and often cannot be read. If it be a business letter, the one who has to answer it must make up the address of his reply from the signature and heading. It should be written very plainly. If the letter goes to the Dead-Letter Office, and the signature and heading are plainly written, it will be returned to the writer.

- 8. What part of this letter comes next to the heading? Of what use is the address? Of what items is this address made up? Dictate the address. The teacher should W. B. in proper place after the heading. Let a pupil read the heading and address of the letter, as another points to the corresponding items on the board.
- 10. Show, also, that the different letters all agree in having at the close some words of respect or affection. Lead the class to state that these words, with the signature, are written under the letter, and give the term subscription. W. B. Compare, —

manu | script, written by hand;
post | script, written after;
super | scription, written above;
sub | scription, written under.

11. Teach that all that part of the letter between the salutation and subscription is called the *body* of the letter. Have the class dictate the names of the various parts, as they are pointed out by the teacher. Have them tell why each part is so called, and of what use it is. The *heading* is at the top of the letter. (Compare with the heading of fringe, of a chapter, the *head* of a bed, etc.) The *body* is the largest, or principal, part of the letter. (Compare with the body of a horse or of a tree, a body of land, etc.)

Lesson I., Chapter XVI., page [137],

ORAL INSTRUCTION TO PRECEDE EX. I., PAGE [139], AND LESSON II., PAGE [143].

Plan. - Refer to Readers and to letters, and teach: -

- 1. The space left on any side of a printed or written page is called a margin.
- 2. A printed page has four margins: the top margin, the inner margin, the outer margin, and the lower or bottom margin. If the words came to the edges of the leaf, they would be covered by the fingers that held the book, and might become soiled or worn. The words at the ends of the lines might be bound out of sight, when the back was put on the book. The page would not look so well.
- 8. Find a piece of poetry. Poetry is divided into stanzas. How many stanzas are there in the poem found? How many lines are there in each stanza? A line of poetry is called a verse. Read a verse. Read a stanza. Find a piece of prose in your Reader. What do we call one of the divisions of a piece of prose? How many paragraphs are there in this lesson? How can you tell where each paragraph begins? How else could you tell? How does the space allowed before the first word of each paragraph compare in width with the left margin? Measure the width of this space before each paragraph. The space is uniform in width. Every paragraph begins just as far as the others from the left edge of the page. A line drawn through the first letter of every paragraph would be a straight line. The space allowed before the beginning of each new paragraph is the paragraph margin. How wide is the margin on this page? the paragraph margin? Observe margins and paragraph margins of various letters.
- 4. Draw a line on the board an inch long. Draw a line two centimeters long. (A nickel five-cent piece is two centimeters in diameter.) Draw a straight line across your slate one inch and a half from the top. Draw a straight line parallel to, and a little more than half an inch from, the left side of your slate. What two margins do these lines show? How wide is the top margin? the left margin? A top margin of one inch and a half, and a left margin of more than half an inch, should be allowed on every page of a letter.
- 5. We should begin a new paragraph in a letter whenever we begin to write upon a different subject. (Illustrate.) Each new paragraph should be marked by a paragraph margin one inch, or two and a half centimeters in width. How many paragraphs are there in the letters on pages [141] and [142]? How does each paragraph begin? How many paragraphs are shown in the diagram on page [140]? How can you tell? How else could you tell?

6. We will use this mark, ¶, to show that a new paragraph should have been made in a letter or any written exercise. Describe the mark that shows where a new paragraph should begin. How does it differ from P?

NOTE. — In going over this work for the first time, if the class be young, teach them to write but one form of heading, salutation, and subscription. In reviewing, or in connection with the written exercises in Part II., teach various forms.

CHAPTER XVI

LETTER WRITING.

LESSON I.

THE PARTS OF A LETTER.

Preceded by oral lessons and blackboard exercises indicated in Teacher's Edition.

- I. the heading,
 2. the address,
 3. the salutation,
 4. the body,
 5. the subscription.
- 1. Turn to the letters found on pages 141 and 142, and read,
 - (a) the heading of each letter,
 - (b) the address of each letter,
 - (c) the salutation of each letter,
 - (d) the body of each letter,
 - (e) the subscription of each letter.
- 2. What does the heading of a letter show?

The heading shows where and when the letter was written; thus,

Detroit, Michigan, June 10, 1880.

3. What does the address of a letter show?

The address shows to whom the letter is written, and to what place it should be sent; thus,

Mers. M. W. Bogers,
New Albany,
Andiana

4. What is the superscription of a letter?

When the address is written on the envelope (en'-ve-lope or en-vel'-op) it is called the superscription.

- 5. What does the word superscription mean? Superscription means that which is written above.
- 6. What does the word subscription mean? Subscription means that which is written under.
- 7. Of what is the subscription of a letter made up?

The closing words of esteem, and the name of the writer, make up the subscription of a letter; thus,

I am, dear Sir, Very truly yours, Abram B. Cutler.

Note. — The name signed by the writer is called his signature.

8. What is the salutation of a letter?

The greeting is called the salutation; as,

My dear Mother, — Sir: — Esteemed Friend, —

- 9. What is the body of a letter?
- All that part of the letter between the salutation and the subscription is called the body of the letter.
- CAUTIONS.—1. There should be something on every letter to show,—
 - (a) To whom the letter is written, and to what place it should be sent.
 - (b) By whom the letter is written, and to what place an answer may be sent, or the letter returned.
 - 2. The heading, signature, address, and superscription of a letter cannot be written too plainly.

EXERCISE 1.

- 1. Copy the diagram of a letter on the next page.
- 2. Name the parts of a letter shown in the diagram.
- 3. Write on your slate the name of each part of a letter, beside the picture of that part.
- 4. What else is shown in the diagram?
- 5. Mention two uses of the hyphen.
- 6. What does this (¶) show?
- 7. Find a story in your Reader, and tell how many paragraphs it contains. How do you know?
- 8. If the paragraphs were not numbered, how could you tell where a new paragraph begins?
- 9. When should a new paragraph be formed in a story or a letter?
- 10. Tell how many paragraphs there are in each of the letters found on pages [141] and [142].

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KEY TO THE DIAGRAM.

• • • , the heading,	— — —, the address,
* * *, the salutation,	, the body,
† † †, the subscription	

Washington, Q. C., May 5, 1881

My dear Friend, -

Your letter of April 20th

was duly received.

We are all sorry that you had to leave school: We spoke of you often yesterday, and wished that you were with us.

Our May Day picnic was held in a large grove just outside of the city. We gathered some beautiful wild-flowers for our lesson this morning

The teacher and all your friends in school join me in wishing you a pleasant vacation!

Hoping that you are already better, and will be able to write to me often, I am,

Very truly, your friend, Helen Passons.

Miss Ellen Fletcher, 128 Eascade Avenue, Denver, Colorado.

A BUSINESS LETTER.

Vicksburg, Miss., June 19, 1880.

John L. Shorey, so Bromfield St., Boston, Mass.

Sir, — Enclosed please find \$2.00 for one subscription to "The Nursery," to begin with the number for July, 1880, and one subscription to "Baby-Land," to begin at the same date.

Please send the magazines to Miss Bertha Beach, Wayne, Adams Co., Ohio

LESSON II.

ABOUT PARAGRAPHS AND MARGINS.

Preceded by oral instruction. — See Teacher's Edition, page 199.

- 1. What is a margin? Of what use is a margin in a book?

 A letter?
- 2. In writing a letter, how many, and what, margins should be allowed?
- Two; a margin of one inch and a half, or four centimeters, at the top, and a margin of more than half an inch at the left.
- 3. What is a paragraph? A stanza? A verse?
- 4. How often should a paragraph be made in a letter?
- 5. How do we mark the beginning of a new paragraph?
- 6. What is a paragraph margin?
- The space allowed at the left where the new paragraph begins is the paragraph margin.
- 7. How wide should the paragraph margin be?
- The paragraph margin should be one inch, or two and a half centimeters, in width. The first word of every paragraph should begin just under the first word of the paragraph above, and the spaces between the left margin and the initial of each paragraph should be equal.

Exercise 1.—(Blackboard.)

- Draw a diagram of a letter which will show, (a) the top margin; (b) the left margin; (c) the paragraph margin; (d) how many paragraphs there are in the letter, and where each ends; (e) the parts of the letter.
- Turn to page [184], and learn the meaning of the words abbreviate and abbreviation.

EXERCISE 2.

1. Turn to the Appendix to Part I, page [186], and learn the meaning of, and how to write, the following:—

A. D. B. C. inst. P. O. St. Ave. Co. No. prox. ult.

2. Learn to write the abbreviations of the names of months and the names of days.

Exercise 3. — (Blackboard.)

- 1. Write the name of the place in which you live.
- 2. Write the name of the county in which you live.
- 3. Write the abbreviation used for the word county.
- 4. Write the name of the State in which you reside.
- 5. How is the name of your State abbreviated? Write the abbreviation very plainly.
- 6. Write the name of this month. Write the abbreviation used for the name of this month.
- 7. How many days are there in this month? Show in figures what day of the month this is.
- 8. Show in figures what year this is.

A. - THE HEADING OF A LETTER.

LESSON I.

THE ITEMS OF THE HEADING.

See note, page 200.

- 1. What part of a letter is the first to be written?
- 2. What should the heading of a letter show?

- I. The heading should show $\begin{cases} 1. \text{ where the letter was written,} \\ 2. \text{ when the letter was written.} \end{cases}$
- 3. What items would you use for the heading of a letter to be written from here to-day?
- CAUTION 1.— If a letter be written from a place that is not very large and very well known, the heading should give the name of the place, the name of the county, and the name of the State; thus,

Moravia, Cayuga County, New York, June 17, 1889.

- 4. What items would form a correct heading for a letter to be written to-morrow from your home?
- CAUTION 2.— If an answer is to be sent to the place from which the letter is written, the heading should give in full the address of the writer; thus,

68 Boylston St., Boston, January 1, 1880.

Or,

9. O. Box 327, Baltimore, October 13, 1883.

Or,

International Hotel, Denver, : Colorado, December 4, 1885.

Or,

Brockport, Monroe Co., New York, Jan. 5, 1889.

- 5. What items would form a correct heading for a letter to be written next Christmas from the largest city in your State?
- CAUTION 3. There are many places in the United States which have the same name; as, Rochester, Jackson, Newark, Washington. In writing from any such, even though it be a large and well-known city, be careful to add the name of the State; thus,

Rochester, Minn: Newark, New York! Rochester, N. Y. Newark, New Gersey!

EXERCISE.

 Mention the items of these headings, and tell what each item shows:*—

> (a.) New Orleans, March 8, 1880. (b.) Kansas City, Mo., August 12, 1890.

(c.) 620 Broadway, New York, Tebruary 28, 1890.

^{*} The name of the month and the day of the month make one item; the house number and the name of the street make one item; the P. O. Box number is one item.

(d.)

D. O. Box 120, Little Falls, Herhimer Co., New York, April 27, 1882.

2. Mention the abbreviations used in the above headings.

Tell instead of what word each abbreviation is used.

What mark is placed after each abbreviation?

OBSERVATION LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON II., PAGE [147].

Plan. - 1. Review Lesson III., page [33].

- 2. Refer to the headings given in Lesson I., page [144], and in the letters on pages [141] and [142]. Call upon a pupil to read a heading; to mention one by one the words in the heading, to tell which words are proper names, which are common names, which are written with capitals, and why each capital is used.
- 8. Distribute a few letters to the class, and call upon some of the pupils to write the headings on the board just as they appear in the letters. Examine the capitalization of the headings. C. D. that all are correctly written.
- 4. Have a pupil mention the items of one of the headings, and tell what mark is used after each. Compare the copy on the board with the letter, and see that the punctuation is correct. Examine the headings in Lesson I., and those on pages [141] and [142], and state what mark is used after the last item of every heading, and when the comma is used in a heading.
- 5. Who can tell why the period is used? Who can tell why each comma is used? Before confirming any answer to the latter, take up the Development Questions in Lesson II., page [147].

NOTE. — Have one side, or half of one side, of each slate, properly ruled with a knife. When necessary to test the pupil's readiness in working without such guide, he may be required to use the other side of his slate, or a sheet of paper.

ORAL INSTRUCTION TO PRECEDE LESSON III., PAGE [151].

Plan. - To develop an idea of proportion of parts: -

1. Take an irregular object, — as a pair of scissors; have it named; have its parts found, named, and briefly described; have any peculiarity by which it could be identified noticed. Compare it with another pair.

2. Draw a picture of it, or uncover a picture previously drawn, in which the actual size is given. Let the class look at the picture, say of what it is a picture; show of which pair of scissors this is a picture; and describe and compare the parts of the scissors and of the picture.

3. Draw, or uncover, a picture of the same on a smaller scale. Have the class say of which pair of scissors it is a picture, and how they recognize it. Compare this, the picture on actual scale, and a picture on a much larger scale. Lead the class to say that they are all true or correct pictures of the same thing, but are not of the same size.

4. Make another picture of the same pair of scissors, drawing the bows by the large scale, and the blades on a much smaller scale. C. D. that the picture is not correct. Why? But these bows are no larger than in that picture, and the blades are no smaller than in that; and you said those were both right. C. D. that when you make one part larger, you must make all other parts correspondingly large. Tr. con.

5. How many sides has the school-room? How do the sides compare in length? How many lines should I use to make a figure shaped like the school-room floor? How should those lines compare in length? If I make on the blackboard a picture of the floor, and put the line for this side at the top of the board, what kind of a line shall I put here (indicating the bottom of the board)? Who will draw the other two lines? How do they compare in length with these two? Are they right? Why not? Tr. erase three of the lines, and draw them in the proportion dictated by the class, - "a great deal shorter," or "a little longer," etc. C. D. that the figure is the right shape; that the picture is much smaller than the school-room floor; and that, since the blackboard is smaller than the floor, a picture of the floor on the blackboard must be smaller than the floor itself. C. D. that the table is not so large as the blackboard, and that a picture the actual size of the top of the table may be made on the board. Tr. draw it around the picture of the floor. C. D. that this is wrong; that the table is in the room, and that the picture of the table should be inside, not around, the other. Tr. draw it inside, but make it almost as large as the room. C. D. that this is wrong, and why. Let a pupil take the crayon, and place the drawing of the top of the table

where he thinks it belongs, and make it about the right shape and size. C. D. that this is right; that the picture of the room should be as many times larger than the picture of the table as the room is larger than the table.

- 6. Apply the above to pictures on the board of a sheet of letter-paper, and develop the idea that a very large sheet calls for wide margins, and a very small sheet for narrower margins. Verify this by comparing letters written on note paper, on commercial note, and on Congress cap. Teach that the top margin should be about one inch and a half (or four centimeters) in width.
- 7. Show that if the letter will go upon one page, the first line of the body of the letter should be about as far from the top as the last line is from the bottom, and that the heading, address, and subscription should be arranged so that the sheet will look well balanced.
- 8. By examples at the board show that if the sheet of paper be small, and there be many items in the heading, the date may be placed at the close, after the signature, and on the left side of the page.
- 9. Draw on the board the first page of a sheet of paper. Have the class say that the picture is so much larger than the original, that all spaces, margins, etc. had to be much wider. At their dictation, write, elsewhere on the board, the heading for a letter to be sent from here to-day. By actual trial, show that the heading is too long to go on one line; that it looks better in two (or three) lines; and teach just where and how it should be written.
- 10. Dictate Directions 1, 2, 3, and 4, on page [152], and W. B. for the class to copy neatly, in a plain, bold hand, four headings of various lengths (one so long that the date should go at the close of the letter). From their slates let the class tell: what the heading of a letter shows, where it should be placed, how many lines it may occupy, when the date may be placed at the close, where each line should begin and end, and why the heading should be written very distinctly. Collect the slates. Select a few to be criticised and commended before the class.

Exercise 1. — (Blackboard.)

See page [156].

- 1. Select two or three pupils to W. B. the address formed in the *Home Task* above.
- 2. Have the class tell of what items each address is made up, and what each item shows. Teach that the part of the address which shows when the letter was written is called *the date of the letter*.
 - 3. Receive criticisms, and have corrections made by the writer.

- 4. Call attention to the titles used, or to the omission of titles. Have the writers tell what title was, or should have been, used, and why. Review: what a title is, how a title should be written, how and why titles are abbreviated, and what certain abbreviations (see Exercise 2, page [153]) signify.
 - 5. Slate and blackboard practice in writing addresses made up of, -

a title and name of a firm, a street No., the name of a city, the name of a State. the title and name of a person, the name of a village, the name of a county, the name of a State.

LESSON II.

THE CAPITALS AND PUNCTUATION OF THE HEADING.

Preceded by an observation lesson. — See Teacher's Edition, page 211.

Development Questions.—1. What is a statement? 2. Read the following group of words:—

This letter was written at New Orleans on March 3 in the year 1879.

3. What do you think about that group of words being a statement? Why? 4. What mark should be used at the close of a statement? Copy the above statement, and use the period correctly. 5. Rewrite the statement, and omit every word that is not a proper name; thus,—

New Orleans March & 1879.

- 6. What did you omit between Orleans and March? Between 3 and 1879!
- 7. What mark should be used in a statement instead of omitted words?
- 8. Use the commas correctly where on and in the year are omitted; thus, -

New Orleans, March 3, 1879.

9. Why not use a comma instead of the words omitted before New?

Marks of punctuation are to be used only after words or groups of .words.

- 10. Read the heading formed from your statement. Mention the items of the heading formed. Tell what mark is used after each item, and why it is used. 11. What words in the heading of a letter should be written with capitals?
- 1. Change each of the following statements into a heading for a letter, and use the comma and period correctly:—
 - (a) This letter was written at Topeka in the State of Kansas on June 12 in the year 1874.
 - (b) This letter was written at 20 Bond Street in the city of New York on October 26 in the year 1872.
 - (c) This letter was written at Piney Point in St. Mary's County on April 19 in the year 1866.
- 2. Read the headings formed, and tell what mark you used at the close of each heading.
- 3. Tell what words you omitted from each statement, and what mark you used instead of the omitted words.
- 4. Mention the items of each heading, and tell what each item shows.
- 5. How should the heading of a letter be punctuated?
- II. A comma should be placed after every item of a heading except the last.
 - A period should be used after the last item of a heading.

Exercise 1.—(Blackboard.)

- 1. Write, and punctuate correctly, a suitable heading for a letter to be sent from here to-day.
- 2. Copy the following headings, and use the comma and period correctly:—

Binghamton, New York, September 11, 1887. (b.)Box 1667, Boston, June 7, 1890. (c.)46 Madison Street. Chicago Illinois, January 3, 1882. (d.)Beebe House, Maniton, El Paso Co. Colorado August 8, 1887.

- 3. Mention every item of each heading, and tell why you used each capital, comma, and period.
- 4. Rewrite the above headings, and abbreviate correctly the names of the States and the names of the months.
- 5. What mark should be used after each abbreviation?
- CAUTION. A period used to mark an abbreviation is not a mark of punctuation. If a comma is required after a word written in full, place a comma after the period which marks the abbreviation of that word; thus.—

Or,

HOME TASK.

Write a proper heading for a letter to be sent to-morrow from your home.

CAUTIONS. — 1. Do not leave out a necessary item of the heading.

- 2. Punctuate the heading correctly.
- 3. Write the heading very plainly.

Exercise 2. — (Oral and Blackboard.)

- 1. Tell what the heading of a letter shows.
- 2. Tell of what items a heading may be made up, and how it should be punctuated. Write an example.
- 3. When may a comma be used after a period? Write an example.
- 4. Dictate the items, capitals, and punctuation of the heading for a letter,
 - (a) To be written on New Year's day from the capital of your State;
 - (b) To be written on the 23d of March, 1885, from Omaha, in the State of Nebraska, by a person who would like the answer to be sent to P. O. Box 169.
- 5. Use these items in a heading:—

- (a) Tennessee; Nashville; 130 Cherry Street; 1882; February 26.
- (b) Brown County; January 13; Ohio; 1884; Ripley.
- (c) March 4; 1891; New York City; P. O. Box 1140.

LESSON III.

THE POSITION OF THE HEADING.

Preceded by oral instruction and practice, indicated on page 212.

- 1. Where should the heading of a letter be placed?
- The heading of a letter should be placed in the upper right-hand corner of the sheet of paper, and should begin about an inch and a half, or four centimeters, from the top of the sheet.
 - 2. How much space may the heading occupy?
 - The heading may occupy a part of one line, of two lines, or of three lines; thus,—

(a.)
New York, Dec. 10, 1880.

(b.)
Salt Lake City, Wtah,
December 10, 1880.

(c.)
I. O. Box 36, Boslyn,
Queens County, N. Y.,
December 10, 1880

NOTE. — If the heading be made up of many items, and the sheet of paper be small, the date may be placed at the close of the letter, in the lower left-hand corner.

EXERCISE 1.

See Note, page 211.

Directions.—1. Rule a straight line across your slate one inch and a half, or four centimeters, from the top. 2. Under this, rule three more parallel lines one centimeter, or a little less than half an inch, apart. 3. Repeat the lines and spaces at the other end of your slate. 4. Repeat on the other side of your slate. 5. In the exercise which follows, use the top line of each group as the top line on a sheet of letter-paper, and each margin above the lines as the top margin of a letter.

- 1. Write a proper heading for a letter to be sent from here to-day.
 - A. If the heading may be placed on one line, it should begin far enough to the left to be written very plainly, and yet allow a small space at the right after the date. See (a) above.
 - B. If the heading requires two lines, allow a little more space at the right on the top line, and begin and end the items of the second line farther toward the right than those on the first line. See (b) above.
 - C. If the heading requires three lines, allow still more space at the right of the first line, and let the items on the second and third lines begin and end farther to the right than the items on the line next above them. See (c) above.
- 2. Use these items in a heading:—

 Place, San Francisco; date, Jan. 5, 1884.

- 3. Write a heading for a letter to be sent from Lowell, in the State of Massachusetts, on the 11th day of July, in the year 1887.
- 4. Write a heading for a letter to be written in Hamilton Co., Ohio, on the 16th of February, 1885; the answer to be sent to P. O. Box 64, College Hill.
- 5. Look at the headings written, and tell,
 - (a) of what items the heading of a letter is made up,
 - (b) how the heading of a letter should be punctuated,
 - (c) where the heading of a letter should be placed,
 - (d) how many lines the heading may occupy,
 - (e) where each line of the heading should begin and end.

Review Lesson II., Chapter V., page [42].

EXERCISE 2.

- 1. What is a title?
- A word used with the name of a person as a mark of respect, or to designate his rank, office, or position, is called a *title*; as, *Captain*, *Doctor*, *Judge*, *Madam*, *Superintendent*.
- 2. How should a title be written?
- A word that is used as a title of office, or honor, should be commenced with a capital letter; thus, *Professor*, *General*, *Miss*.
- 3. Turn to the Appendix to Part I. and learn the meaning of, and how to write,—

Mr.	Dr.	Prof.	P. M .	$\mathbf{Mrs}.$	Capt.
Esq.	M. D.	Jr.	Agt.	Hon.	Messrs.

- 4. Write each of the above abbreviations, and, after each, the title for which it stands.
- 5. Use correctly, with the name of a person, each title learned.
- CAUTIONS. (a) Mr. and Esq. mean the same. Both should not be used in the same address.
 - (b) Dr. and M. D. mean the same. Both should not be used in the same address.
 - (c) Miss is not an abbreviation, and a period should n t be placed after it.



B. — THE ADDRESS OF A LETTER.

LESSON I.

THE ITEMS OF THE ADDRESS.

- 1. Name all the parts of a letter shown in the diagram on page [140], and tell which part of a letter comes next to the heading.
- 2. What does the address of a letter show?
- I. The address shows $\begin{cases} 1. \text{ to whom the letter is written,} \\ 2. \text{ to what place the letter should be sent.} \end{cases}$
- 3. Turn to the letters on pages [141] and [142], and read the address of each.
- 4. How many, and what, items should the address of a letter contain?

II. The address of a letter should be made up of four items, viz.:

- (a) The title and name of a person or firm,
- (b) The number of a house and the name of a street,
- (c) The name of a city,
- (d) The name of a State.

Or.

- (a) The title and name of a person or firm,
- (b) The name of a place,
- (c) The name of a county,
- (d) The name of a State.*

Thus:—

Messrs. Ely and Tyler,

62 and 64 Somerset St.,

St. Pavl, Minn.

Or,

Mrs. E. W. Emerson,

P. Q. Box ss, Lackport,

Niagara Co., N. Y.

5. What other part of a letter contains the same items which make up the address? Of what use, then, is the address?

^{*} The P. O. Box number may be used instead of the street number in the first list, or added to the items of the last.

HOME TASK.

Make a list of the items which should be used in the address of a letter to be sent to some one at your home.

> Exercise 1. — (Blackboard.) See page 218.

EXERCISE 2.

1. Name the parts of a letter shown in the following; read the items of each part; tell what each item shows:—

Lowell, Mass.

Messis, Ginn and Heath. 18 Tremont Place, Boston.

Mobile, Ala, Jan. 2, 1894.

Mars. Hiram Bennet, Na. 4 Newton St.

Waltham. Mass.

(c.)

State Normal School

Farmington, Maine,

July 26, 1892.

D. C. Eastman, M. D.,

Box 6, Gettysburg, Pa.

- 2. Mention the abbreviations used in the above, and write the titles abbreviated.
- 3. Tell where each comma and period used in the above is placed, and why it is needed.

OBSERVATION LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON II., PAGE [157].

Plan.—1. W. B. a great variety of addresses which exemplify the rules taught in the lesson. Point to one of them, and direct a pupil to read it. What is this? Whose address is it? Where does he reside? What is his title? How do you know? What is a title? How should a title be written? Find another word in this address that begins with a capital, and tell why the capital was used. Another. Another. When all have been pointed out, examine other addresses, and deduce Rules III. and IV.

2. Find, in an address, a word that does not begin with a capital. Class find and. Teach them to use the word and rather than the character & in the address or body of a letter. Who can find, in an address, some other word that is not written with a capital? Class find of in cases like "Care of

3. Have one pupil point to, and the class read, the items of each address, mentioning every mark of punctuation, thus, — "A. B. Clark comma Esq. comma Box 6 comma Gettysburg comma Pennsylvania period."

Deduce the rules for the use of marks of punctuation in the address of a letter. Show that, when the title is placed after the name, the comma used between the name and title takes the place of omitted words; thus, —

E. B. Lewis who is an M. D.

E. B. Lewis, M. D.

Note. — The address has a period placed after it, because, —

- 1. It is a (shortened) statement.
- 2. It is a statement made about the letter for the information of any person who may find it.
- 3. It is not written to the person, or it would require a comma, and "Messra. and —, Gentlemen," would be incorrect.

LESSON II.

THE CAPITALS AND PUNCTUATION OF THE ADDRESS.

Preceded by an observation lesson. - See Teacher's Edition.

- 1. What have you learned about the use of capitals in the address of a letter?
- III. Any title, proper name, or abbreviation, used in the address of a letter, should begin with a capital.
- IV. Any common name (as street, county, box, avenue), used in the address of a letter, should begin with a capital.
- V. The word and, used in the address of a letter, should not begin with a capital.
- 2. What have you learned about the use of the comma and period in the address of a letter?
- VI. A comma should be placed after every item of the address except the last. A period should be placed after the last item.
- VII. If the title be placed after the name, it should be separated from it by a comma; thus, —

A. B. Clark, Esq.

E. B. Lewis, M. D.

If the title be used before the name, the comma should not be placed between them; thus,—

Mr. A. B. Clark.

Dr. E. B. Lewis.

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VIII. When the last word of an address is abbreviated, but one period is used to mark the abbreviation and the close of the address; thus,—

E. S. Erskine, M. D.,

Washington, D. C.

Exercise 1.—(Blackboard.)

Copy the following neatly and carefully, and tell why each capital, comma, and period is used:—

(a.) John E. Everett, Esq., 226 Duluth Ave., Milwaukee, Wis.

(b.) Messrs. Eastman and Colby, Box 396, Bangor, Me.

Hon. F. I. Grimes, M. C., Fort Wayne, Indiana.

Note. - Require the class, -

- 1. To mention the abbreviations in the above.
- 2. To write in full the words which Esq., Ave., Wis., Messrs., Me., Hon., and M. C. signify.
 - 3. To write the proper abbreviation for Street, and for Fort.

EXERCISE 2.

Write correctly, and give a reason for each correction made, -

1.

P. O. box 32 Trenton, N.J. August 23, 1890.

Harper & brothers

Franklin Square, New York city.

2.

clarksville, red river Co, Texas june 7 1892.

Mrs p.t ferguson

charleston s. c.

Dover, Del, Sept

Mr. Hiram Preston Esq., Jackson, Mich.

Exercise 3. — (Review.)

- 1. What does the heading of a letter show?
- 2. Of what items is the heading of a letter made up?
- 3. How should the heading of a letter be punctuated?
- 4. Just where, on a sheet of paper, should the heading of a letter be placed?

- 5. Why should the heading of a letter be written very plainly?
- 6. What items should the address of a letter contain? Why?
- 7. When written on the envelope, what is the address called?
- 8. Why should the address be written on the letter as well as on the envelope?
- 9. What is a title? Mention the proper titles of three persons whom you know, and tell how each of those titles should be abbreviated.
- 10. Write a suitable heading and address for a letter to be sent from here to-day. Tell where, and why, you used each capital, period, and comma in the heading and address written. (See Note, page 224.)

Exercise 4. — (Blackboard.)

- 1. W. B., and review the meaning of, postscript, superscription, subscription.
- 2. W. B. the abbreviations on page [153]. Let the class tell what each means, cancel any which have the same meaning, tell whether to use Dr. or M. D. before a name, and whether to use Mr. or Esq. after a name.
- 3. W. B. 3 P. M. and Felix Taylor, P. M. Let the class tell two meanings of P. M. Add A M. and M. Compare ante-date, ante-meridian, ante-diluvian. Also, post-script, post-mortem, post-meridian.
- 4. Send several pupils to the board; one to write the names of the parts of a letter in the order in which the parts are usually written; another to draw on a large scale the picture of a page of letter-paper, while some one else copies the picture on a small scale; another to write a heading for a business letter, another to write the address of a business letter, and another to show in a diagram just where the heading of a letter should be placed.
- 5. Review the work on the board, and hear criticisms, suggestions, and commendations. Ask why the heading and body of a letter are so called; why the margins in one diagram need to be so much wider than in the other: about how wide the top margin of a letter should be; the left margin, etc.,

OBSERVATION LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON III.

- **Plan.**—1. By reference to pages [141] and [142], and to various letters brought before the class, lead them to distinguish between a business letter and a letter of friendship. Explain what an official letter is.
- 2. If you should write to a relative of yours, and tell him about your school, your games, and your playmates, which kind of a letter would that be? If a teacher should write to our Superintendent how many pupils there are in school, their ages, attendance, studies, etc., which kind of a letter would that be? If you should write to Messrs. and that the groceries which your father ordered came, and that you enclosed the amount due, which kind of a letter would that be? Many similar tests.
- 3. Refer again to different letters. Ask to whom each was written, and how they know. Is it a business letter, an official letter, or a letter of friendship? Where on the letter do you find the address? Any others who find the address at the close of the letter, after the signature, may stand. What kind of a letter is yours, and where is the address? In a similar way question many others. Let that section sit, and ask some one who has a business letter to stand; read the address, and tell where on the letter the address is. Any other who has a letter with the address next after the heading and before the body of the letter may stand. Several do so. Each states that his letter is a business letter, addressed to ——, and that the address is at the beginning of the letter, on the left side of the page, between the heading and the salutation.

LESSON III.

THE POSITION OF THE ADDRESS.

Preceded by an observation lesson, - See Teacher's Edition.

The address of the person to whom the letter is sent is written upon the letter, so that the postmaster, or any person who may find the letter outside of the envelope, may know to whom it belongs. It should be written so plainly that no mistake can be made in regard to a single letter or figure used.

The address may be placed at the beginning or at the close of the letter. It is better to place the address of a business letter at the beginning, next to the heading; thus,—

Raleigh, N. C., Dec. 20, 1890.

Messis. Franklin and Hall,

53 Market Street, Richmond, Va.

The address of an official letter, or of a letter of friendship, may be placed at the close of the letter, after the subscription, at the left-hand side of the page; thus,—

Your sincere friend, Gestrude

Miss Ruth Chapman, Bennington, Vermont.

Or, —

Your ovedient servant, Mo. C. Meigs, Quartermastev General.

To His Excellency,

Gov. John A. Andrew, Boston, Mass.

- 1. What is a margin?
- 2. How many, and what, margins should be allowed on the first page of a letter?

- 3. How wide should the upper margin be? The left margin?
- 4. Just where, on a sheet of letter-paper, should the address of a letter begin?
 - (a) If the items of the heading occupy but one line, the address should begin near the left margin, on the second line below the heading.
 - (b) If the items of the heading occupy more than one line, the address should begin near the left margin, on the next line underneath the heading.
 - (c) If the letter is an official letter, or a letter of friendship, the address may begin at the left margin on the next line below the signature of the writer.

EXERCISE 1.

- Rule your slate like a sheet of letter-paper; allowing an upper margin of one inch and a half, or four centimeters, a left margin of two centimeters, or three quarters of an inch, and a space of half an inch between the lines.
- 2. Write the heading and address of a letter to be sent:—
 - (a) From here, March 16, 1890, to some one now in school with you. The person will be in New York, at Saratoga, and will be using P. O. Box 92.
 - (b) From St. Augustine in Florida to D. Lothrop & Co. of Boston. Their store is on the corner of Hawley and Franklin Sts. The letter may be dated Aug. 3, 1889.
 - (c) From Lincoln, Nebraska, on Christmas Day, 1887, to your teacher, whose address will remain unchanged.

- 3. Look over your work and be sure, -
 - (a) that every letter and figure used can be read,
 - (b) that no necessary item is omitted,
 - (c) that capitals and marks of punctuation are correctly used,
 - (d) that each part begins and ends at the right place.

C. - THE BODY OF THE LETTER.

LESSON I.

THE SALUTATION.

I. The body of the letter contains what you say to the person to whom you write.

As you would not enter another's room without rapping at the door, or begin a conversation with him without speaking his name, or in some polite way calling his attention, so you should not begin what you have to say to the person to whom you write without some form of greeting; as,

Sir: — My dear Sir, — Dear Friend, — Gentlemen: — My dear Mother: —

II. The greeting is called the *salutation*, and is the first thing in the body of the letter; thus,

1.

Exeter, N. H., Oct. 1, 1893.

Messrs. Olin and Collamore,

13 Tremont Place, Boston.

Gentlemen: — We ordered, on the 19th ult., &c.

2.

Rome, Oneida Co., N. Y. December 23, 1885.

My dear Friend, —

Yours of the 16th inst. was duly received, &c.

Very truly yours,

George J. Brooks.

Dr. Elmer C. Brigham, Houston, Texas.

- CAUTIONS. 1. The salutation should never be disrespectful, or even as familiar as a spoken greeting.
 - 2. Do not abbreviate the words of your salutation.
 - 3. Do not be familiar or presumptuous in greeting a person who is older, or more learned, or in higher position than yourself.

FORMS OF GREETING.

1.	To a	strange	gentleman,	or ge	ntlemen, —	
	Sir	·	May .	dear	Su:_	Girs: _
	•	Gentle	, men:		Qear	Girs:—

2. To a strange lady, -

Madam, — Dear Madam, — Miss Gurlis, —

3. To a friend or relative, -

My dear Friend, — Dear Father, — Dear Miss West, — Dear Cousin Annic, —

EXERCISE 1.

Dictate an appropriate salutation for a letter to, —

1. A business firm.

3. A classmate.

2. Your teacher.

- 4. A strange lady.
- 5. A relative to whom you would like to write.

OBSERVATION LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON II.

- 1. What is the first thing in the body of a letter? What is the salutation of a letter? What would be a suitable salutation for a letter to your father or mother? to a classmate? to a strange lady? to a business firm? As the pupils answer, W. B. some of the salutations suggested.
 - 2. W. B. a few other forms of greeting; as, -
 - (a) Dear Mr. Upton,
- (c) Esteemed Friend,
- (b) My dear Charlotte,
- (d) My dear little Son.

After the class read each, refer to (a), and ask the class which words in this salutation are written with capitals. Why is the initial of *Upton* a capital? of *Mr.?* of *Dear?* Find the word *dear* elsewhere on the board. Is it written with a capital there? Why not? Read the next salutation. What is the first word of that? What is the initial of the word? What kind of a letter is it? Why is it a capital? In a similar way examine many salutations. Try to find a salutation that begins with a small letter. C. D. and Tr. W. B. The initial of the first word of the salutation should always be a capital.

- 3. Refer to (a) again. Why is Mr. written with a capital? Find on the board another title in a salutation. With what kind of a letter does that title begin? Examine many cases, and deduce and W. B. II., page [165].
- 4. Let the pupils point out the proper names used in the salutations, say which are Christian names and which are surnames, and state that the initial of any proper name should be a capital.
- 5. Refer to the words friend, father, etc., and teach and W. B. III., page [165]. Verify this by examining many letters.
- 6. Dictate several forms of greeting. Call upon a pupil to stand, to read the first salutation, to mention a capital used, and to read from the board the rule for the use of that capital. Examine others in the same way.
- 7. Review the use of the comma to separate the name of the person spoken to from what is said to him. Refer to (1), page [163], and (2), page [164], and let the class tell how each salutation is separated from what follows in

the body of the letter. Have the pupils dictate the forms of greeting on page [164], and the marks to be used after each. W. B. a few, and then send pupils to the board to write other salutations dictated by the class, using all capitals and marks of punctuation correctly. Criticise the work, and have it corrected. Obtain and W. B. IV., page [166].

LESSON II.

THE CAPITALS AND PUNCTUATION OF THE GREETING.

Preceded by an observation lesson. - See Teacher's Edition.

- What have you learned about the use of capitals in the salutation?
- I. The initial of the first word of the salutation should always be a capital; as,

Dear Sir. —

My dear Sir, -

- II. Any title (as Sir, Madam) used in the salutation should begin with a capital letter.
- III. The words friend, father, mother, &c. are used as titles in a salutation, and each should begin with a capital letter; thus,

Dear Friend, -

My dear Cousin, -

2. Point out the commas in the following, and tell why each comma is used:—

Did you write to him, Walter? My dear Agnes, come here.

Will you, Charles, write to him?

3. What mark is used after the greeting to the person addressed in a letter?

IV. The salutation or greeting to the person addressed in a letter is separated from what is said to him by a comma and dash; thus, Dear Alfred,—

Or by a colon and dash; thus, Gentlemen: -

Exercise 1. — (Blackboard.)

Write an appropriate salutation for a letter to, -

- 1. A little boy.
- 2. An old gentleman whom you know.
- 3. A strange lady.
- 4. A dear friend or relative.
- 5. A business firm.

EXERCISE 2. — (Oral.)

- 1. Of what use is the heading of a letter? The address?

 The salutation?
- 2. How many, and what, items should the heading contain?
 The address?
- 3. Tell what a margin is, and how wide the upper and left margins of a letter should be.
- 4. Where should the heading of a letter begin? The address?
- 5. What does the body of a letter contain? What is the first thing to be written in the body of a letter?
- 6. What mark should be placed at the close of the address?

 Of the salutation? Of the heading?
- 7. What words in the salutation should begin with capitals?
- 8. What is a paragraph?
- 9. What is a paragraph margin? How wide should the paragraph margin of a letter be?

 Look at the letters on pages [141] and [142], and tell me where the first paragraph of each begins.

Review Lesson II., page [143].

LESSON III.

THE POSITION OF THE SALUTATION.

- The first word of the salutation is the beginning of the first paragraph of the letter.
- The first letter of the salutation fixes the width of the paragraph margin.
- The salutation should be written on the line next below the address (or next below the heading if the address be placed at the close); thus,

(a.) London, Eng., July 4, 1890.

Messis. Hubbard and Smith, 226 Broadway, New York.

Gentlemen: _ Your favor, &c.

(b.)

Box 492, Colorado Springs, Colorado, Dec. 26, 1885.

Esteemed Friend, _

We were, &c.

Exercise 1.

- Think of a letter that you could write, and draw on your slate a diagram that will show,—
 - 1. Where the heading of the letter should be placed, and how many lines you would use in writing it.
 - Where the address should begin, and how many lines it would require.
 - 3. The width of the paragraph margin.
 - 4. Where the salutation would begin and end.
 - 5. Where each paragraph on the first page would begin.

Describe the diagram so that some one can make a copy of it on the blackboard.

EXERCISE 2.

Turn to the Appendix to Part I., page [186], and learn the meaning of, and how to write,—

rec'd	Rev.	B. A.	LL D.	Ft.
R. R.	Pres.	Prof.	Gov.	Gen.
U. S. A.	D. D.	P. S.	Lieut.	Capt.

Exercise 3.

Write the heading, address, and salutation of a letter to be sent,—

- From your home to-day, to Messrs. John Wilson & Son, at Cambridge, Mass.
- 2. On the 3d prox., by them, in reply to your letter.
- 3. From your present residence, at any date, to a physician whose name is John W. Lee, and whose office is at 650 Broadway, New York City.

- From Des Moines, Iowa, to Mrs. F. H. Adams. Date, Jan. 8, 1890. Her residence, Louisville, Ky. She uses P. O. Box 137.
- 5. To a minister living at Columbia, S. C., from a person living at 119 Plum St., in Vicksburg, Miss. Give any date.

Exercise 4.

Write correctly, and give a reason for each correction made,—

1.

coates house kansas city mo. february 14 1896

miss may howbert.

4 park street

Colorado Springs Col,

my Dear friend. Your very interesting letter, &c.

2.

Smalltown, April 1884,

Gentlemen: --

Please send us by return mail, &c.

OBSERVATION LESSON TO PRECEDE LESSON IV.

2. When the class have copied all so far, ask, What shall we say first to ———. ? Teach f, page [171]. We have no letter to acknowledge. How shall we begin? Encourage any suggestion. Let some one repeat what is

suggested. Where shall I begin to write that? Place it wherever they suggest, and begin it with a small letter. Compare it with pages [141], [142], [167], [170], and teach a and b (or c, or d).

- 3. Examine the slates. Commend neatness, legibility, and proper arrangement of items. You have done *very well* so far. Who would like to tell what we shall say next? When this is in form to be written, review Lesson II., page [143], and let the class show just where the new paragraph should begin. Add one or two more paragraphs, and let the class state e, page [171].
- 4. Compare the slates with the blackboard and with each other, and call attention to the principal errors. If the class be old enough, they may copy this work on paper, and rectify all mistakes.

Note. — Exercises like the above should be continued until the class are able to dictate with more confidence and write more rapidly. They may then be taught, orally, Lesson I., page [172]. At first, as indicated, the teacher guides them both in choosing what to write and in the arrangement of the items and paragraphs. Later, they may be aided by conversation — or by a series of questions, or an outline on the blackboard — to collect the material for a letter, but should be required to arrange the items without help. The letters written may be made the basis of a thorough review — see page [172] — of all that has been taught about the correct use of capitals, of marks of punctuation, and of words. If any points to be reviewed are not brought out by the letters of the class, the teacher may prepare and dictate a simple letter introducing those points.

LESSON IV.

MORE ABOUT THE BODY OF THE LETTER.

Preceded by an observation lesson. — See Teacher's Edition.*

- 1. What more have you learned about the body of a letter?
 - (a) What follows the salutation should always begin with a capital; thus:—

^{*} Lesson IV. need not be recited. It should be read, referred to, and applied. The cautions should be taught from time to time when the mistakes appear. If an error be repeated, the pupil may be referred to the caution, and required to learn it.

(x.)

Mess is. Cander and Rounds,

45 Union Square, New York.

Gentlemen: - Yours of the soth ult., &c.

(y.)

Miss E. Willard, Albion.

Moy dear Madam, -

When your letter came &c.

(z.)

Liverpool, England, March, 7, 1890.

Dear Friend,-

We received the glad tidings, &c.

- (b) If the address occupies two or more lines, what follows the salutation should always begin on the same line with it; as (x) above.
- (c) If the address was written on one line, what follows the salutation should begin on the next line below; as (y) above.
- (d) If the address be placed at the close of the letter, the salutation should begin on the line next below the heading, and what follows the salutation should begin on the line next below that; as (z) above.

- 2. Write the heading, address, salutation, and first line of a letter, to illustrate b, c, and d.
- 3. What have you learned about the paragraphs of a letter?
 - (e) A new paragraph should be made whenever one begins to write about a new subject. The first word of each paragraph should begin just as far from the left margin as the first word of the paragraph above.
- 4. In replying to a letter, what is the first thing to be stated?
 - (f) The person to whom one writes would like to know at the outset if his letter has been received. In acknowledging the receipt of a business letter, give the date of it; as, "Yours of the 16th inst.," &c.; or, "Your letter bearing date Aug. 10th was duly received."
- 5. What cautions should be observed in writing the body of a letter?
 - 1. Write very plainly.
 - 2. Do not crowd words; if there is not room for a word at the end of a line, divide it between two syllables, and place a hyphen at the end of the line to show that the word is not finished. (See diagram, page 140.)
 - 3. Do not use & for and in the body of a letter.
 - 4. Except in writing dates and sums of money, do not use figures in the body of a letter;—"I am ten years old," not "I am 10 years old"; "We read seven pages," not "We read 7 pages."
 - 5. After the salutation is written, do not begin at once to talk about yourself; thus, "I take my pen," fc., or "I received your letter." (See d, above.)

6. The words friend, doctor, senator, &c., when used in the body of a letter, and not as titles, need not begin with capitals; as, "Your friend has not forgotten you"; "We shall call a doctor if he is no better"; "The senator is an older man."

Thorough Review, with Practice.

See Note, Teacher's Edition, page 240.



LESSON I.

- 1. What does the word subscribe mean?
- 2. What part of a letter is called the subscription?
- I. What is written under the body of the letter is called the subscription.
 - 3. Turn to the letter on page 141, and read the subscription of it.
- II. The subscription of a letter is made up of the closing words of respect or affection, and the signature of the writer; thus,—

Your affectionate son, Jesse L. Hepworth.

2

I remain, with highest esteem, Your obedient servant, Lloyd H. Williamson.

3.

Believe me, as ever, Your sincere friend, Jessie Newman.

Ŀ.

I am, Sir,
With great respect,
Mrs.* A. B. Hinkle.

5.

Respectfully yours,

A. E. Richardson, M. D.

In writing to a stranger, a lady who uses the initials of her Christian name should use her title with her signature.

6.

Yours very respectfully,
Miss* E. T. Emerson.

7.

Very truly yours, Carleton Foss.

8.

Hoping for an early reply,

I am, sincerely, your friend,

Fanny Ellison.

- CAUTIONS. 1. The closing words should not be more familiar than the salutation. They should always be respectful, and should be written with great care.
 - 2. The signature should be written very plainly,—so plainly that any letter of it taken by itself could be read easily and with certainty.
 - 3. Unless the address to which an answer may be sent is given in the heading of the letter, it should be placed after the name of the writer; thus:—

^{*} See Note, page [173].

Hotel Cluny, Boston, June 6, 1889.

Prof. Maria Mitchell, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

Dear Madam, --

Your	letter	in	regard	to,	&c

With great respect, very truly yours,
Mrs. E. C. Wells,
North Conway, N. H.

EXERCISE 1.

Dictate a suitable form of salutation and subscription for a letter to be sent to,—

- 1. A friend or relative.
- 2. A business firm.
- 3. A strange lady.
- 4. A strange gentleman.
- 5. Your teacher.

EXERCISE 2.

Copy the forms of subscription given in Lesson I., and use each capital, comma, and period correctly.

Exercise 3.

See Dictation Exercise, Teacher's Edition, page 3.

Note. — Let the class read the rules in the Lesson following, and verify each by reference to the forms of subscription in the preceding Lesson. Call for volunteers to illustrate each rule by a subscription written upon the board. W. B. a few incorrect forms, and hear criticisms.

LESSON II.

THE CAPITALS AND PUNCTUATION OF THE SUBSCRIPTION.

Preceded by an observation lesson. — See Note, page 246.

- 1. What have you learned about the use of capitals in the subscription of a letter?
 - I. The first word of the subscription should begin with a capital letter.
- II. The first word of any part of the subscription that is placed on a separate line should begin with a capital letter.
- III. The words Sir, Madam, &c., are used as titles in the subscription of a letter, and should be written with capitals.
- CAUTION. When the words son, friend, mother, &c., refer to the writer, they are not titles, and need not be written with capitals in the subscription of a letter.
- 2. What have you learned about the use of the comma and period in the subscription of a letter?
 - IV. The closing words of respect should be separated from the signature by a comma.
 - V. A period should be placed after the signature.
 - VI. Sir. Madam, or any word or words used to name the party addressed, should be separated from the subscription by a comma or commas.
- VII. Such expressions as "I am," "I remain," "Believe me,"

 "As ever," and the like, should be cut off by a comma or

 commas.

Exercise 1.

- 1. Read the forms of subscription given in Lesson I., and tell why each capital, comma, and period is used.
- 2. Write correctly, and give a reason for each correction made,
 - (a) I am dear sir truly yours Geo T Sargent
 - (b) sincerely your Friend Edith Sumner.
 - (c) Believe me as ever very cordially Yours Albert Edison.

EXERCISE 2.

See Note, Teacher's Edition, page 240.

- 1. Write a letter.
- 2. Look at your letter, and describe,—
 - (a) the upper margin, (e) the heading,
 - (b) the left margin, (f) the address,
 - (c) the paragraph margin,
 (d) the paragraphs,
 (e) the body,
 (f) the subscription.
- 3. Mention all omissions and all errors,
 - (a) in spelling,
 - (b) in the use of capitals,
 - (c) in the use of marks of punctuation,
 - (d) in the items and position of each part of the letter,
 - (e) in the division of words or paragraphs.
- 4. Rewrite the letter, correcting all mistakes.

- 5. Tell how you would fold a letter to enclose it in an envelope.
- A thorough Review, with repeated application and practice.

E. — THE SUPERSCRIPTION.

LESSON I.

THE ITEMS, CAPITALS, AND PUNCTUATION OF THE SUPERSCRIPTION.

Preceded by a review of Lesson I., page [154], and Lesson II., page [157].

- 1. What does the word superscribe mean?
- 2. What part of a letter is called the superscription?
- 3. Of what items is the superscription of a letter made up?
- 4. What other part of the letter contains the same items?
- 5. Where is the address of a letter placed? Of what use is it?
- 6. Where is the superscription written?
- 7. Of what use is the superscription? How should it be written?
 - (a) Every item of the superscription should be written in a plain, bold hand.
 - (b) The items should be so separated and arranged on the envelope that the P. M. can read them quickly and with certainty.
 - (c) Too many abbreviations should not be used. The abbreviations of the names of the States should be written with great care.

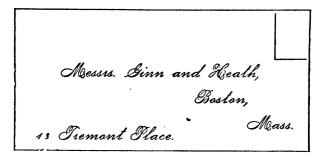
- 8. Tell how the superscription of a letter should be punctuated.
- 9. What beside the superscription should be placed on the envelope of a letter that is to go by mail?
- 10. Where, on the envelope, should the stamp be placed?
 Why?*

Exercise 1.

Read the following superscriptions, and tell, -

- (a) of what items each is made up;
- (b) why each period and comma is used;
- (c) why there is no period after Miss (at 2);
- (d) why there is a comma between the name and title (at 3), and none between the title and name (at 1);
- (e) where the postage stamp should be placed: —

1.



^{*} When you write a letter about matters of more importance to you than to the person to whom you write, if you wish an answer, enclose a stamp.

2.

Miss Emma Hutchins, Cincinnati, Ohio.

3.

John Harmon, Esq.,

Brockport,

Monroe Co.,

N. Y.

4.

Mors. H. C. Hildreth, Ekome, New York.

EXERCISE 2.

- 1. Draw the picture of an envelope, and show in the picture where the stamp should be placed.
- 2. Write neatly, in its proper place on the envelope, the superscription of a letter.
- 3. Punctuate the superscription correctly.
- 4. Mention the necessary items of a superscription.
- 5. Tell how the superscription of a letter should be punctuated.

EXERCISE 3. — (Blackboard.)

- Point out the mistakes made in writing Exercise 2. Select a few pupils to place the correct forms upon the board.
- 2. Teach, orally, Lesson II., following.

LESSON II.

THE POSITION OF THE SUPERSCRIPTION.

- 1. How many lines does the superscription of a letter usually require?
- 2. What should be placed in the first line of the super-scription?

The name and title should be in the first line; thus,

Mrs. E. B. Atwood, M. D.

- 3. Just where, on the envelope, should the first line be placed?
- The first line of the superscription should be about in the center of the envelope, never above the center.

The space before the beginning of the line, and the space after the end of the line, should be equal.

4. Where should the other items be placed?

The other items should be placed, one in each line, under the items of the first line. Each line should begin a little farther to the right than the item in the line above it; * thus:—

Mrs. & B. Atwood, M. D., Poichmond, Va.

Or, two of the items may be thus written, and the county, street, or P. O. Box No. may be placed in the lower left-hand corner; thus:—

Mrs. E. B. Stwood, M. D., Poichmond, Va.

^{*} The slant at the right of the lines may be very irregular. This cannot be avoided, and the eye is not troubled by it, if the lines begin uniformly.

Exercise 1.

- 1. Draw on your slate a figure to represent the back of an envelope.
- 2. Show by lines where the stamp belongs.
- 3. Rule four lines to show where you would place the four items of a superscription.
- 4. Use the marks of punctuation after the lines that you would use after the items.
- 5. Describe the position of the line that is drawn where the first item should be placed.
- 6. Tell where each of the other lines begins.
- 7. Draw a straight line to touch the left end of each of the four horizontal lines.
- 8. What kind of a line is this?
- 9. Write the superscription of a letter that is to be mailed to,—
 - (a) A lawyer in Philadelphia, whose name is L. C. Hazen, and whose office is at 634 Girard Ave.
 - (b) A young lady named Florence Hughes, who lives in New Orleans, at No. 8 Walnut St.
 - (c) To a physician in San Antonio, Texas, whose P. O. Box is 380, and whose name is E. B. Downing.
 - (d) To W. C. Blanchard, a member of Congress from Ohio, who is at his home in Stark County. His P. O. is at Canton.
 - (e) To some person whose address you know.
- A thorough Review, with varied and persistent practice and criticism. See Composition Exercises, Appendix to Teacher's Edition, page 276.

APPENDIX TO PART I.

A. — ABBREVIATIONS.

Brief means short; to abbreviate is to shorten. We abbreviate words,—

- (a) By leaving out a letter or letters; thus, ne'er for never, h'dh'fs for handkerchiefs.
- (b) By cutting off a letter or letters; thus, Jun. for June or Junior.
- (c) By using an initial letter instead of a word; thus, P. O. for Post-Office.

The shorter form of a word is called an abbreviation.

1. Look at the following, and tell what mark is used with each to show that it is an abbreviation:—

e'en D. St. l. c. tho'

CAUTION. — A period used after an abbreviation is not a mark of punctuation. A comma, or any mark of punctuation (except the period) which would have been used after the word written in full, may be placed after the period of the abbreviation; thus,—

Clarksville, Red River Co.,

Mrs. B. A. Ellis, 1142 Girard Ave..

Tex.

Phila., Penn.

8.,

South.

2. In the following, learn to spell and write the full form of each word; then, learn to write the abbreviation used for that word:—

NAMES OF THE DAYS. NAMES OF THE MONTHS. Sunday. Sun., Jan., January. Monday. Mon., Feb.. February. Tues. Tuesday. Mar.. March. Wednesday. April. Wed., Apr., Thurs., Thursday. May. June. Fri. Friday. Jun., Saturday. Jul., July. Bat., August. Aug., POINTS OF THE COMPASS. September. Sept., October. Oct., **E**., East. W., Nov., November. West. Dec., December. N., North.

NAMES OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES.

Ala.,	Alabama.	Kan.,	Kansas,
A. Ter.,	Arizona Territory.	Ky.,	Kentucky.
Ark.,	Arkansas.	La.,	Louisiana.
Cal.,	California.	Mass.,	Massachusetts.
Col,	Colorado.	Me.,	Maine.
Conn.,	Connecticut.	Md.,	Maryland.
D. C.,	District of Columbia.	Mich.,	Michigan.
Del.,	Delaware.	Minn.,	Minnesota.
D. Ter.,	Dakota Territory.	Miss.,	Mississippi.
Fla.,	Florida.	Mo.,	Missouri.
Ga.,	Georgia.	M. Ter.,	Montana Territory.
III.,	Illinois.	N. C.,	North Carolina.
Ind.,	Indiana.	Neb.,	Nebraska.
Ind. Ter.,	Indian Territory.	Nev.,	Nevada.
I. Ter.,	Idaho Territory.	N. H.,	New Hampshire.
Ia.,	Iowa.	N. J.,	New Jersey.

N. M., New Mexico.

N. Y., New York.

O, Ohio.

Or., Oregon.

Penn., Pennsylvania.
R. L. Rhode Island.

R. I., Rhode Island. S. C., South Carolina.

Tenn., Tennessee.

Tex.. Texas.

U. Ter., Utah Territory.

Va., Virginia.

Vt., Vermont.
Wis., Wisconsin.

Wg. Ter., Wyoming Territory.
W. T., Washington Territory.

W. Va., West Virginia.

ABBREVIATIONS IN COMMON USE.

A. B., Bachelor of Arts.

Acct., or %,., Account.

A. D. (Anno Domini), In the year of our Lord.

Agt., Agent.

Am., or Amer., American.

A. M. (Ante Meridiem), before noon.

A., or Ans., Answer.

Ave., Avenue.

B. A., British America.

bbl., barrel or barrels.

B. C., Before Christ.

Bro., Brother.

Capt., Captain.

Ch., or Chap., Chapter.

Co., County or Company.

C. O. D., Collect on Delivery.

Col., Colonel.

Coll., College.

Com., Committee, Commodore.

Dem., Democratic.

· Do. (Ditto), the same.

Doz., Dozen.

Dr., Doctor, Debtor.

Ed., Editor, Edition.

E. g., Example given.

Esq., Esquire.

etc. (et cetera), and so forth.

Ex., Example, Exception.

Fahr., Fahrenheit.

Ft., Fort, foot, feet.

Gen., General, Genesis.

Gent., Gentleman.

Hdkfs., Handkerchiefs.

Hon., Honorable.

Le., or Id est, that is.

Ins.. Insurance.

Inst. (Instant), the present month.

J. P., Justice of the Peace.

Jr., or Jun., Junior.

Leg., Legislature.

Lt., or Lieutenant.

L. I., Long Island.

M., Noonday, or One Thousand.

M. C., Member of Congress.

M. D., Doctor of Medicine.

Mem. (Memorandum or Memoranda), to be remembered.

Messrs., Gentlemen.

mo., month.

Mr., Mister.

Mrs., Mistress.

Ms., Manuscript.

Mss., Manuscripts.

Mt., Mountain.

N. B. (Nota bene), Note well.

N. E., New England.

No., Number.

oz., ounces.

Photo., Photograph.

P. M., Postmaster.

P. M. (Post Meridiem), after noon.

P. O., Post-Office.

pp., pages.

Prox. (Proximo), the next month.

Prof., Professor.

Prin., Principal.

P. S., Postscript, written after.

Q., Question.

Qy., Query.

R. R., Railroad.

R., or Riv., River.

Recd., Received.

Recpt., Receipt.

Rep., Representative, Republic, Republican.

Rev., Reverend.

S. A., South America.

Sen., Senior, Senator, Senate.

S. S., Sunday School.

St., Saint, Street.

Supt., Superintendent.

Treas., Treasurer.

Ult. (Ultimo), the past month.

Univ., University.

U. S. A., United States of America, United States Army.

U. S. N., United States Navy.

Viz., Namely.

Vol., Volume.

Vs., Versus, against.

V. P., Vice-President.

wk., week.

X., Christ.

Xmas, Christmas.

Yrs., Yours.

Y. M. C. A., Young Men's Christian Association.

B. — A KEY TO THE DICTIONARY.

Marks used to denote the sounds of letters are called di-a-crit-i-cal marks.

The diacritical marks of the vowels are, -

- the macron,

~ the breve,

" the dī-ær-e-sis,

^ the circumflex accent,

~ the waving accent,

. the dot.

I. THE MACRON () is used to mark the regular long sound of the vowel; thus.—

ā as in āle,
ē as in ēve,
ū as in ūse,
ī as in īce,
ÿ as in mȳ.

II. THE BREVE () is used to mark the regular short sound of the vowel; thus, —

ă as in ăt, ŏ as in fox, ĕ as in mĕt, ŭ as in ŭp, Y as in pĭt, ÿ as in mỹth.

III. THE DI-ÆR-E-SIS (··) is used, —

1. To mark the Italian sound of the vowel; thus,—

ä as in äh, ärm, guärd, hurräh; ï as in machïne, polïce, suïte.

2. To mark the broad sound of the vowel; thus, —

a as in awe, talk, swarm; o as in do, move, route; u as in rude, true, sure.

IV. THE CIRCUMFLEX ACCENT (^) and THE WAVING ACCENT (~) are used to mark the occasional sounds of the vowels; thus,—

â as in câre, hâre, pârent; ê as in thêre, nê'er, whêre; ô as in fôr, hôrse, stôrm; û as in spûr, hûrt, bûrn; ē as in tērm, mērcy, fērn; ī as in fīrm, thīrsty, mīrth; ỹ as in mỹrrh, mỹrtle.

gāte.

- V. THE DOT (·) is used to mark the remaining sounds of the single vowels; thus,
 - å as in åsk, låst, commånd;
 - a as in what, was, halibut;
 - ò as in done, won, covet:
 - o as in wolf, woman, should;
 - u as in push, pull, put, sugar.
- NOTES. 1. The macron (\bar{a}) is sometimes used to show that e has the sound of \bar{a} ; thus, \underline{e} as in eight, neigh, sleigh.
 - 2. The macron () is also used to show that oo has the sound of o; thus, room, moon, root, hoof.
 - 3. The breve () is sometimes used to show that oo has the sound of o; thus, wood, foot, good, book.

EXERCISE.

Pronounce the following words correctly, and give the sound of the vowel marked in each:—

advertīse.

bēaver.

squā-lor,	lēisu	heīgh-ho,	
to-mā-to,	pē-o	bron-chī-tis,	
gāuge,	ē-qu	as-pī-rant.	
whōle,	sūe,	eÿe,	băde,
re-vōlt,	dūty,	allÿ,	tăs-sel,
dē-pōt,	tūne,	pa-pÿ-rus,	ĕn-gine,
pi-an-ō,	sūit,	de-crÿ,	guĕss.
ŏffer,	buĭld,	heärth,	laurel,
cŏffee,	sĭeve,	pretty,	prove,
jŭst,	pĭ-ăn-o,	abyss,	ruin,
rŭt,	sĭrup,	åunt,	scârce.

C. — WORDS TO SPELL AND USE CORRECTLY.

Air, the atmosphere.

Ere, before.

E'er, ever.

Heir, one who inherits.

Ayr, a town in Scotland.

All, every one, the whole.

Awl, a tool.

An, one.

Ann, a girl's name.

Ant, an insect.

Aunt, a relative.

Ate, did eat.

Eight, twice four.

Aught, anything.

Ought, what one should do.

Bad, wicked, worthless.

Bade, did bid.

Ball, a sphere.

Bawl, to cry out or shout.

Base, the lowest part, mean.

Bass, a deep sound in music.

Beech, a kind of tree.

Beach, a shore.

Beet, a vegetable.

Beat, to strike repeatedly.

Bow, a knot, a weapon.

Beau, an admirer, a fop.

Berry, a small fruit.

Bury, to hide, to inter.

Birth, coming into life.

Berth, a sleeping-place.

Blew, did blow.

Blue, a color.

Bough, a branch of a tree.

Bow, to bend, a part of a boat.

Bred, brought up.

Bread, an article of food.

By, near, beside.

Buy, to purchase.

Cereal, corn or grain. Serial. in a series.

Ceiling, a part of a room.

Sealing, as with wax.

Chord, a musical string or note.

Cord, a rope or string.

Cite, to summon, to quote.

Site, situation.

Sight, something seen.

Cole, cabbage.

Coal, a mineral.

Coarse, not fine.

Corse, a dead body.

Course, track, progress.

Creek, a running stream.

Creak, a grating or straining noise.

Cue, a hint to speak or act.

Queue, the hair plaited behind.

Dew. condensed moisture.

what is owing. Due.

an order for money. Draft. Draught, a drink.

Dying, expiring. Dyeing, coloring.

Fane, a temple, Fain. desirous. . Feign, to pretend.

Gage, a kind of fruit. Gauge, the measure.

Gate, an entrance. Gait. manner of walking.

an imitation of gold. Gilt.

Guilt, wickedness.

Grate, for holding fire. Great, very large.

Grater, a utensil. Greater, more great.

strong, healthy. Hale, Hail. frozen rain.

Hare, an animal.

Hair, covering of the head.

Hall, a part of a building. Haul, to drag.

a kind of deer. Hart,

Heart, a part of an animal.

Heal. to cure.

Heel. a part of the foot.

Here, in this place.

Hear, to hearken.

Herd. a number of cattle.

Heard, did hear.

to cut. Hew. a color. Hue.

Idle, lazy, out of work. Idol, a heathen god.

Isle. an island.

Aisle, a part of a church.

I will. I'll.

did lead. Led. Lead. a metal.

chief, principal. Main, Mane, a part of a horse.

Meet, come together.

Meat, flesh.

Mete. to measure.

to cut off. Pare, a couple. Pair. Pear. a fruit.

Pause, to stop.

Paws. feet of a beast.

Peace, quiet, rest. Piece, a portion.

rind or skin. Peel.

a ring of bells. Peal.

Pole. a long staff. the head: to take votes Poll. an election.

Pray, to offer prayer.

to plunder, to feed upon. Prey,

Quire, twenty-four sheets of paper. Choir, a body of singers.

Rain, water from the clouds. Reign, to rule.

Rein, a part of a bridle.

Rap, to strike quickly.

Wrap, to roll up, or enfold.

Rite, a religious ceremony.

Right, correct, just.

Write, to record by letters.

Wright, a proper name, also a workman; as, a wheelwright.

Sail, a part of a ship. Sale, selling.

Seas, more than one sea. Sees. beholds.

Seize, to take by force.

So, in this way.

Sow, to scatter seed. Sew. to use a needle.

Stake, a pointed stick. Steak. a slice of meat.

Strait, narrow.

Straight, not crooked.

There, in that place.
Their, belonging to them.

Vain, false, useless.

Vane, a weathercock.
Vein, a part of the body.

APPENDIX TO TEACHER'S EDITION.

-00-

I.—LANGUAGE EXERCISES FOR TRAINING THE MEMORY AND THE IMAGINATION.

- 1. Let the class turn their backs to the table, clock, or other object in the room, and describe it minutely. Have the class decide as to the correctness of each item of the description before it is accepted. When they have nothing more to add, let them look at the object and verify or correct the description.
- 2. Let them describe an object (which all have seen and can easily see again) in the school-yard, in the street, or in a park. W. B. the name of the object, and the salient points in the description as fixed upon by the majority. Have them see it at recess or after school, and report as to the correctness of the outline on the board. Erase or correct errors, and let the class use the outline as a basis for a written description of the object.*

In general such a lesson will occupy two or three days. First the object is recalled, and the leading points of the description are placed upon the blackboard. Then the class see the object and verify or disprove the statements made. The third day they write a description of the object. Young pupils should be required to verify but two or three points of the description.

3. A lesson in geography, or a story read from a magazine or the Reader, may be restated, orally or in writing, in the language of the child. Aid the pupils to form vivid images by adding to the description in the book and questioning them on particular points; as, How shall we go to . . . from here? I wonder if oranges grow there? What do the people do all day long? How do you think the children go to school?

^{*}Aid the class to recall the object by such questions as: How many of you have seen...? Point in the direction of it. Where is it? What color is it? Show me something that has the same color. Think how large it is. What parts has it? How would you know it from ...? When they seem to recall it vividly, let one begin to talk. The others should listen closely and decide as to the accuracy of each statement made.

- 4. Let them read a poem that they like, and tell the story in their own words.
- 5. Let one pupil tell how he goes home at night. Others who go the same way should listen while he tells what he sees, and correct, modify, or add to, his account.
- 6. Let the class look at a picture and make a story from what they see.
- 7. Let them invent a story introducing something learned in school; as an account of a voyage to the Coral Islands. Aid them by questions; as, Who went? How did they go? What was the name of the ship? From what place did they sail? What waters did they cross? What did they see? What happened on the way? How did the islands look? How did the trees get there? What were the people doing? etc.
- 8. Let them describe a certain number and kind of windows, and make a graphic word picture of the house that they might build and use those windows.
- 9. Let a pupil think of a person whom all the class knows, and describe him accurately, and see if the others can guess who it is.

II.—THE PARTS OF OBJECTS.

A chair, ∢	back, seat, legs, rounds, arms, rockers, castors, cushions.*	The hand,	fingers, thumb, palm, back, knuckles, nails, skin, pores, veins.†
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^{*}Of what is each part made? Of what use is each part? In sitting, do not tip the chair back.

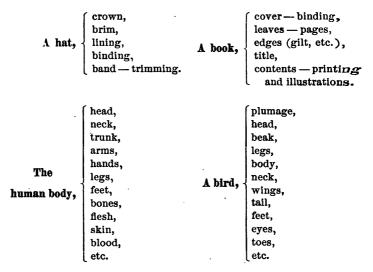
[†] Compare four fingers and fore-finger. Which is the "index finger"? the "mid-dle finger"? the "ring finger"? What are the nalls for? Do not bite them. Take care of them. When the hands are moist, where does the dampness come from? Keep the pores open and clean. What is in the veins? If a finger be cut badly, where should the bandage be placed?

An apple, {	stem, dimple, blow, peel, pulp, core, cells, seed.			roots — bulb, rootlets, stem, branches, leaves — foliage, buds, flowers, fruit — seed.
A house,	walls—sides, roof, chimneys, foundation, cellar, windows, doors, verandas rooms, closets halls, stairs.	•	A shoe, ⊰	sole, heel, toe, uppers, lining, binding, seams — stitches, buttons, button- holes, lace, cyelets, tongue, pegs, nails.
	handle, blades,* rivets, plate.		A flower,	corolla, petals, calyx, sepals, stamens, pistil.†

[•] The blade has an edge, a point, a notch, and a heel. We say that the edge is dull, but we say that the point is blunt.

[†] The bright-colored part is the crown (corona) or corolla. Each part of the corolla is a petal. The little green cup which holds the corolla is the cal-yx (cup). Each part of the calyx is called a se-pal. The fine, yellow, thread-like parts in the center of the corolla are the sta-mens. The pistil is the central part of the flower inside the stamens, and holds the seed, or becomes the fruit when the corolla drops off. Every pupil should have a flower on his desk. Touch the corolla, and ask, What color is this? Find the part of your flower that is red (blue, etc.). Teach corolla. Take off the petals one by one. Let the class do the same, and learn petal. What is left standing? How many stamens? Pull them off. Find the little green cup, etc.





Note. — When the class review, they may add some work in the comparison of parts of things or of the uses of the parts to the object and to us; as, —

- 1. Parts used in procuring food; by the elephant, oyster, owl, woodpecker, hen, humming-bird, lion, etc.
 - 2. The uses of the eyelid to the camel, ostrich, eagle, people, etc.

Or, they may be tested by an exercise like: Write the name of the whole to which each of these belongs as a part, —

Foot (body, yard), head (animal, pin, bed, class, stream, street), eye (animal, needle), face (head, surface). leaf (book, plant), morning, week, autumn, cent, inch, dime, ounce.

III. - THE QUALITIES OF OBJECTS.

- 1. Deal first with the sensible qualities of things; as the color, size, form, weight, roughness, hardness, warmth.
- 2. When the pupils recognize these, and use correctly the word that expresses each, develop ideas of the other qualities (as brittle, elastic, soluble) by experiments upon objects.

3. Read or relate suitable stories, and teach a small vocabulary of words that express the obvious qualities of persons or of animals; as,—

Monkeys are imitative. The poor woman was grateful. St. Bernard dogs are faithful and intelligent. Elephants are sagacious. Susie is very prompt. Ants are industrious. The fox was cunning.

- 4. Let some one in the class think of something, and tell what qualities it has. W. B. the words that express the qualities, and let the class guess what the thing is. W. B. the name over the list of words, or before a brace in front of them.
- 5. Instead of mentioning several objects which have the same quality, let the class enumerate all the qualities of one object, and tell how each quality renders it useful; as,—

Because cork is buoyant it is used for life-preservers, floats, etc.; because it is impervious to water it is used for in-soles; because it is impervious and compressible it is used for stopples.

Matter for Lessons.—Glass, china, egg-shell, candy, break easily, and are said to be brittle.

Bread, a sponge, rattan, the skin, are full of little holes, or pores, and are said to be porous.

Leather, cloth, iron, are not easily torn or broken, and are said to be tough.

Because we can see clearly through glass, air, water, alcohol, we say that they are transparent.

Wood, slate, and things that we cannot see through are said to be opaque.

Rubber, whalebone, sponge, and other things that go back into shape when stretched, bent, or squeezed, are said to be elastic.

Things that can be bent are flexible.

Things that can be folded are pliable.

Things that burn are combustible; if they burn with a flatas they are said to be inflammable.

Ice, tallow, wax, sugar, lead, rubber, and other things that melt in heat are fusible.

Sugar, salt, glue, and things that melt in water are said to dissolve. Things which will dissolve are said to be soluble.

Camphor, flowers, coffee, etc., are odorous.

Lemons, vinegar, etc., are sour or acid.

Bread, milk, meats, and other kinds of food which are nourishing are said to be nutritious.

- General Plan.— (a) Call attention to the objects and have them named. (b) Tell the class to look and see just what you do (or to do something) and tell what happens; as, The glue sticks the things together. We can paste this on with mucilage. The molasses sticks to my fingers, etc.
- (c) What have we found out about all these things? "They are sticky"; "They make things stick together," etc. Give the terms adhere and adhesive.
- (d) Have the class mention something else that is adhesive. Or, present other things, as honey, candy, wax; have the class test each and say that it is adhesive.
- (e) When do we say that anything is adhesive? W. B., "Things which stick are said to adhere. When anything is sticky we say that it is adhesive."

Note. — To recognize the quality and use the word correctly, is more important than to state the definition.

IV. PICTURE LESSONS.

- 1. A picture may be made the basis of a review of something previously taught, or of a lesson on the names of objects and their parts, or of an exercise in describing objects or telling the story that the picture illustrates. In narration or description the following order may be observed,—
- (a) Introduction. This should be brief, pleasant, and calculated to awaken interest. It may often be omitted.
- (b) Objects found. Let them name first the prominent single objects, and then, unless a story is to be inferred or told, the parts of objects and the objects which belong to others; as, the handle of the pump, the boy's jacket.

- (c) Objects described and Story inferred. Let the class tell what they "think the picture is about" in their own way. Simply ask, "Why do you think the little boy has been sick?" or, What makes you think the children are poor? What are they doing? Sometimes the teacher may tell the story in a way to confirm or correct the version of the class.
- (d) Lesson, or Moral drawn.—The teacher should tell, or recapitulate, the story in a manner that will excite the sympathy or disapproval of the class, and state in simple language what the story teaches.
- (e) Picture removed, and the story, or description, reproduced orally or in writing. "Tell me about the picture as you would tell a little boy or girl who had not seen it." If they are careless in their choice of words, "How should you say that if you were going to put it in a book for some one to read?"
 - (f) Drill on new words or expressions taught in the lesson.
- 2. The qualities of persons or of animals may be illustrated by a conversation and picture lesson; thus,—
- (a) Objects found, a dog, sheep (a *flock* or *herd*), a shepherd (*sheep-herder*), green grass, clear water, a rod, staff, or crook, etc.
- (b) What does the shepherd do for the sheep? (Obtain, and W. B. 1 and 2.) What do the sheep find to eat when the ground is covered with snow? Where do the sheep stay at night? How do they get into the fold? What does the shepherd do if any of them are missing? If the little lambs are tired out, how do they get home? What does the shepherd do when dogs or wolves attack the sheep?
- (c) Teach that the things that a shepherd (a watchman, a clerk, a pupil) has to do are called his duties, and obtain and W. B.

Duties: --

- 1. The shepherd watches the sheep.
- 2. The shepherd leads the sheep into fresh pastures.
- 3. The shepherd feeds the sheep.
- 4. The shepherd gathers the sheep into the fold.
- 5. The shepherd looks for the lost sheep.
- 6. The shepherd carries the little lambs in his arms.
- 7. The shepherd protects the sheep from wolves, dogs, etc.

(d) Have the class read the statements. How does the shepherq know when the lambs are tired, or when a sheep is missing, or when the wolves are coming? By these and similar questions, obtain and W. B.

Qualities: -

- 1. The shepherd is watchful.
- 2. The shepherd is wise.
- 3. The shepherd is kind and careful.
- 4. The shepherd is patient and strong.
- 5. The shepherd is brave.
- 3. A picture may be made the basis of an exercise in invention; thus, —
- (a) Distribute a different picture to each member of the class, or let each select from his Reader a picture that he would like to talk about. Ask them to write.
- (b) At the end of ten minutes call upon various pupils to read while you hold the picture written about before the class. Have all incorrect expressions corrected.
- (c) Before submitting the work to the teacher, let them underline every word used as a name, or draw a line between the two parts of each statement, or make some other application of a previous lesson.

V. COMPOSITION EXERCISES.

They who lead the thoughts of others ought to think how they may best do their work. — GLADMAN.

What to say, and how to say it,—that is the writer's problem. But one element of difficulty should be placed before the learner at a time. He should have the ideas furnished or suggested while he learns to use the words. Talking must precede writing. The art of choosing words underlies skill in forming sentences. Ability to construct a paragraph, and to arrange paragraphs into a connected discourse, presupposes a certain sense of logical dependence or relation which cannot be acquired in the Primary School. Step by step learners are to surmount these obstacles. First, the teacher is to suggest the ideas, to teach them to express the ideas, and to place before them, for their

imitation, the correct written forms. Later, the teacher may furnish the ideas, and correct the expression and form which they suggest. Still later, the material for thought may be given them, and the expression and arrangement left to themselves. Last of all, each pupil may be required to select his own material, and to express and arrange it in his own way, with the simple restriction that, with young children, the themes shall be objective and fully within the comprehension of the writer.

(A) Words.—1. By presenting an object, or the picture of an object, by calling attention to an action or a quality, and by referring to the position or condition of an object, develop a new idea, and teach the word that expresses it; as,—

shepherd,	Aeece,	worsted,	hose,
flock,	wool,	crewels,	pelt,
shear,	spin,	dye,	weave,
graze,	bleat,	tan,	knit,
colored,	soft,	warm,	durable.
in the pasture,		under the trees,	
by the stream,		among the sheep,	
on their backs,		near the shepherd,	
across the fields,		beyond the hill.	

- 2. Recall familiar ideas, and teach the class a new word, or phrase, for expressing each; as, slender for slim.
- 3. Teach them to use correctly words that convey opposite meanings; as, deep, shallow; awkward, graceful.
- 4. Require them to supply given words (as dew, due), in elliptical sentences; such as,—

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The . . . sparkles.
That bill was . . . vesterday.
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5. Drill them on the sounds of letters, on the articulation of syllables, and on the pronunciation of every new word learned. Test them on the pronunciation of difficult words; as, fifths, sixths, months, (not fifs, six, munce).

Gradually accustom them to the use of the Dictionary. Show them how to divide new words into syllables, and where to place the diacritical marks and the accent.

- 6. Guard them against localisms in pronunciation and in the use of language. Encourage them to learn at least one new good English word every day. Aid them to increase their stock of words by giving exercises in which they are to use as many different words as possible. For example, when the snow is falling, let them see how many appropriate words they can use to describe the snow; such as, white, soft, falling, new-fallen, feathery, cold (to the touch), warm (to the ground), drifted (or driven), deep, sparkling, pure, noiseless, delicate (each flake), crystalline (made up of crystals). W. B. each word as given, and let them afterward use each to describe something else.
- 7. After they have learned how to use the apostrophe to denote possession, require them to write, so as to use the apostrophe, phrases like, the claws of the cat, the head of a dog, the wages of men.
- (B) Sentences.—1. Supply an object, a picture, or whatever will furnish material for thought and conversation, and encourage the class to find out what they can about it, and to express themselves freely. W. B. a few of the sentences, and require the class to read and copy them, using correctly all capitals and marks of punctuation. Later, let them choose the sentences which please them most, and write these without the teacher's model.
- 2. Teach them what words to use instead of repeating names. W.B. several sentences containing names, and require the class to copy the sentences and substitute it, he, they, his, etc., for the names.
- 3. Teach them to collect several statements about one thing, and to combine these into a single sentence; thus,—

Coal is hard. Coal is inflammable. Coal is black. Coal is opaque.

Coal is hard, black, opaque, and inflammable,

Or, --

John is my brother.
John has some new skates.
John is very proud of his new skates.

My brother John is very proud of his new skates.

4. Show them that the meaning of a sentence varies with the tone of voice and the inflection, and let them practise speaking the same sentence in different ways, and any sentence with a pure, distinct,

and pleasing tone of voice; as, You are late (to express surprise, displeasure, pity). You are very kind. The sun shines to-day. A cube has eight corners. I am very sorry for you. It was gigantic!

- 5. Assign one, two, or three words to be used correctly in a sentence. Or, speak or write a sentence with all the words transposed, and let them make one or more correct sentences from a rearrangement of the words.
- 6. Read a sentence to the class, and require them to express the thought in different language.
- 7. Ask a question, orally or in writing, and after several minutes hear the answer read; as, "What do bees, birds, cattle, etc., do when the sun shines?"

Bees gather honey. An owl sleeps. Oxen work. The bird builds its nest. Cattle and sheep graze. A horse ploughs.

- 8. Let one pupil tell how he would introduce two children to each other; another, how he would introduce a child to his mother, to his teacher, or to any older person; another, how he would introduce himself to a business man at his office, or to a lady in her own home. Dwell upon the importance of speaking the name very distinctly, but, if it be in a public place, not very loud.
- 9. Read, or W. B., elliptical sentences, requiring them to supply words that tell what kind, when, where, how much, which, who, whom, etc.; as,—

The what kind? gate stood open.

We shall go when?

The boat is sailing where?.

Your cheeks are how much? red.

which are my brother's, and which is mine?

who was late to-day?

The child saw whom?

- 10. W. B. several sentences, and require the class to change one, two, or three words in each, and keep the meaning the same.
- (C) Paragraphs.—1. Direct the attention of the class to some familiar thing, and let them say all that they can about it. W.B.

the statements in the order given. Have them read. Lead the pupils to see that some of the statements are about the parts of the objects. others about its uses, others about its qualities, or the material of which it is made. Have them dictate from the board, as you write elsewhere, (a) all the statements made about the parts of the object, (b) all that relate to its material or qualities, (c) those which tell of its uses. Have the statements read again, and show the class that it is much easier to understand, and much pleasanter to read about, anything when the statements are so arranged. Teach them that a group of statements about one branch of a subject is a paragraph. A paragraph may sometimes be a single statement.

2. Require the class to copy, from their Readers, one paragraph and the first line of the paragraph following; to tell what the first paragraph is about; why the new, or second paragraph, was made; how they would know, without reading, that a new paragraph was made; how wide the left margin is; what the paragraph margin shows, and how wide it should be. Dictate two simple paragraphs from the Reader. Let them compare their work with the book, and correct all errors.

(D) Materials for Composition Exercises.*—

a) in the school-room.

Objects,

(a) In the school-room.

(b) brought in by the teacher or a pupil.

(c) represented by pictures.

1. previously studied.

(d) absent 2. familiar, but not studied.

3. unfamiliar, to be examined.

NOTE. — After the object is named, allow the class freedom for two or three minutes, to say whatever it suggests to them. Then question them systematically to obtain a description of the object, its color,

^{*} SUGGESTIONS. - 1. Add to these, or substitute for them, subjects peculiar to the locality; as, fish and shells by the sea; minerals, ores, and metals, at the mines: flowers and animals on the plains; and manufactures near the mills.

^{2.} The same subject may be continued for two or three lessons, the object being to get the class to discover as much about it as possible, and to state what they learn in language that is correct, that cannot be misunderstood, and that is pleasant to

^{3.} This oral composition should be followed by written reproduction, the teacher at first working with the class, by proper questions guiding the order of narration

size, parts, materials, uses, what it does (if an animal), qualities, and the adaptation of its parts, qualities, or material to its uses. Do not try to exhaust a subject before leaving it. It will make them more observing to take up the same thing a few days later, and find that there is still something about it that they did not discover. In connection with the lesson on relation-words, they may describe the position of the parts of an object; as, "The neck is between the head and the body," "The legs are beneath the body."

Where are the birds? Questions,

What was the lesson about?

Of what use are the flowers?

What could you buy with five cents?

What happened at recess?

elating an incident.

What happened yesterday?

What did you see at the menagerie?

In answer to a series of written questions; as, -From what place are you writing? at what date? to whom? What is his address? How will you greet him? Have you received a letter from him? describing a picnic, a journey through the state, etc. from a tropical climate, or frigid zone. from the seashore.

or description, and placing the paragraphs sentence by sentence on the board. Later, after the thoughts are collected and expressed, it will be sufficient to place an outline upon the board, and leave the class to fill this out in individual ways. " Correct practice founded on correct knowledge must be made habit."

4. Do not always be content with trivial, trite statements. Endeavor in every lesson to teach something, - a new idea, a new word, a better thought or a better form of expression.

5. Do not allow the class to get discouraged. See that each pupil understands what is expected of him, that he is fresh, vigorous, undistracted, and that he has a fair amount of intelligent and intelligible assistance.

6. Point by point, in the course of the year, fix in their minds such cautions, as, Dot your i's and cross your i's. Write plainly. Avoid repeating the same word, Divide a word between syllables at the end of a line. Avoid flourishes and writing across a written page. Copy a letter that is blotted. Always re-read what you write before allowing it to leave your hands. Avoid the use of "the blunderer's mark" (A), and "the forgetful one's paragraph" (a postscript). Erase a misspelled word, and rewrite it lightly and carefully,

Stories,

read and reproduced. invented with the aid of pictures. invented without aid. told to illustrate qualities of animals or of persons.

an owl and a stork.

Comparison of

a horse and a cow.
a penny, a pencil, and a ring.
a cube, a cylinder, and a sphere.
a fish and a bird.
a table, a chair, and a stove.
a squirrel, a rat, and a beaver.

The Weather.

The air all around the earth is the atmosphere. The atmosphere is about fifty miles thick. The sun, moon, and stars are far, far above it, in space. We can see them clearly because the air is transparent.

Light and heat come through the atmosphere. When the air is heated, it rises, and the cool air on each side rushes into its place. Air in motion is wind. A light wind is a zephyr, or gentle breeze. A strong wind is a gale. A very powerful wind is a hurricane. When the wind eddies and whirls around, it is a whirlwind. When there is no wind, it is a calm.

The heat falling on the earth evaporates the water. This vapor rises and becomes clouds. When cool air rushes into a cloud, it condenses the vapor into drops of water. The drops are heavier than the air, and fall to the ground. We say that it rains. If very cold air strikes the cloud, the moisture congeals, and it snows. If the drops of water (rain) freeze while falling, we have hail instead of rain. What is a thermometer? a barometer? What is the climate of a place? Name a place that has a hot climate. Where is there a temperate climate? a cold climate? a dry climate? What is meant by a salubrious climate?

Snow,

what it is, — how and why it is white.
what becomes of it.
what children do when it snows.
what the birds do.

Uses,

It protects winter wheat, etc.
It prepares the plains for new grass.
It supplies streams when it melts.

Note. — Clouds are filled with moisture. Very cold air congeals (crystallizes) the moisture, and it falls in flakes. If very cold air should be admitted into a room full of warm and very damp air, snow would form in the room. This has happened in extremely cold countries. The snow, like water breaking over rocks, is white, because it reflects every ray of light.

A House.

Parts.	Materials.	What for.
foundation	stone	To make the house stand firmly, and to keep the cold and rain from getting under the walls.
walls sto	ne and mortar, cks, wood, or iron.	
bri	cks, wood, or iron.	
		To let in light, air, and sun- shine; and to keep out wind and rain.
chimneys	bricks	To carry off soot and smoke.
etc.		To carry off soot and smoke. To keep out sun, wind, noise, and robbers.
Trees, { Kinds,— { pine, maple, fruit, oak, walnut, etc. } } Uses of parts to the tree,		
		tan bark,
	Uses of parts to us,	fruit,
		furniture,
	Uses of parts to us, .	maple syrup,
		kindlings.

Christmas trees, houses, etc.

PART II. of the Elementary Lessons in English,

"How to tell the Parts of Speech," is An Introduction to "The Essentials of English Grammar." The pupil no longer studies words with reference merely to their meaning, pronunciation, spelling, written form, and use to express ideas, but as elements of sentences,—as parts of speech,—and considers each with reference to its use in the sentence. The technical terms of grammar are employed, and the more obvious rules of syntax are taught.

The Plan is inductive. The lessons are arranged in the order of their logical dependence; they proceed from the known to the unknown, from the simple to the more difficult, from the particular to the general. But one difficulty is presented at a time. The way to the new difficulty is cleared, either by observation of the facts of the language, or by a review of something previously taught. When the new ideas are clearly apprehended, and can be clearly stated, a concise, but accurate and comprehensive, definition is formed, and the new term is given. The lesson so mastered is followed by a variety of oral and written exercises, to secure thoroughness, and to broaden the application of what has been taught. Knowledge already acquired is kept fresh and available by means of frequent review and test exercises.

The Subject-matter is chosen with reference, first, to the actual. every-day needs of men and women who are to use the English tongue; second, to the needs of those who will take a broader range, and supplement this practical knowledge by the study of the science and literature of the language. These two interests are blended in every lesson, and are kept in view throughout the course. All non-essentials of English grammar - matters of disputed usage, formidable tables of inflections and conjugations, and all rules which "darken counsel by words without knowledge" are ignored. The sentence is made the starting-point of study and investigation. The pupils review statements, inquiries, commands, and exclamations; say that each expresses a thought, and is therefore a sentence; tell for what each sentence is used, and receive and define the terms declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamative. They review what they know of the "two parts of a statement," and receive, use, and define the terms subject and predicate. They review names of persons, places, things, parts of things,

and materials of which things are made; add names of things which we hear, feel, think of, - names of actions, qualities, and multitudes, — and use and define the term Noun. They have an observation lesson on words used in the extent of their application (as books) and words which limit application (as blue, these, six), to prepare for the study of the adjective. And so, each lesson linked to something learned before, each lesson the foundation of something to come after, each lesson containing something of interest and something of use, - pupils may complete the usual course of grammatical work without once suspecting that "Grammar is a hard, uninteresting, and useless study." The vocabulary lessons and exercises for practice in oral and written composition are novel and valuable. Other rules for spelling, for the use of capitals, marks of punctuation, and marks used by proof-readers, are added as occasion requires. A résumé of these, a table of synonymes, a table giving the sounds and diacritical marks of the consonants, and an additional list of abbreviations, make up the Appendix to Part II.

The Method of the book rests not upon theory, or experiment merely, but upon successful practice. Since the object of language study should be to promote mental growth and discipline, and to form correct habits of thought and study, as well as to build up a knowledge of the forms and usages of the language, the method of language-study should be the natural or scientific one long ago successfully employed in the study of other subjects. The pupil should deal with words and sentences as with birds or flowers; learn their forms, uses, resemblances, and differences, and, when he has a sufficient acquaintance with them, classify them and deduce their laws. But to do this he must be guided deftly and certainly by the hand of the teacher.

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